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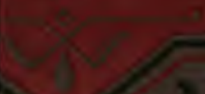


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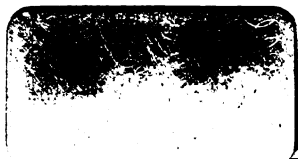


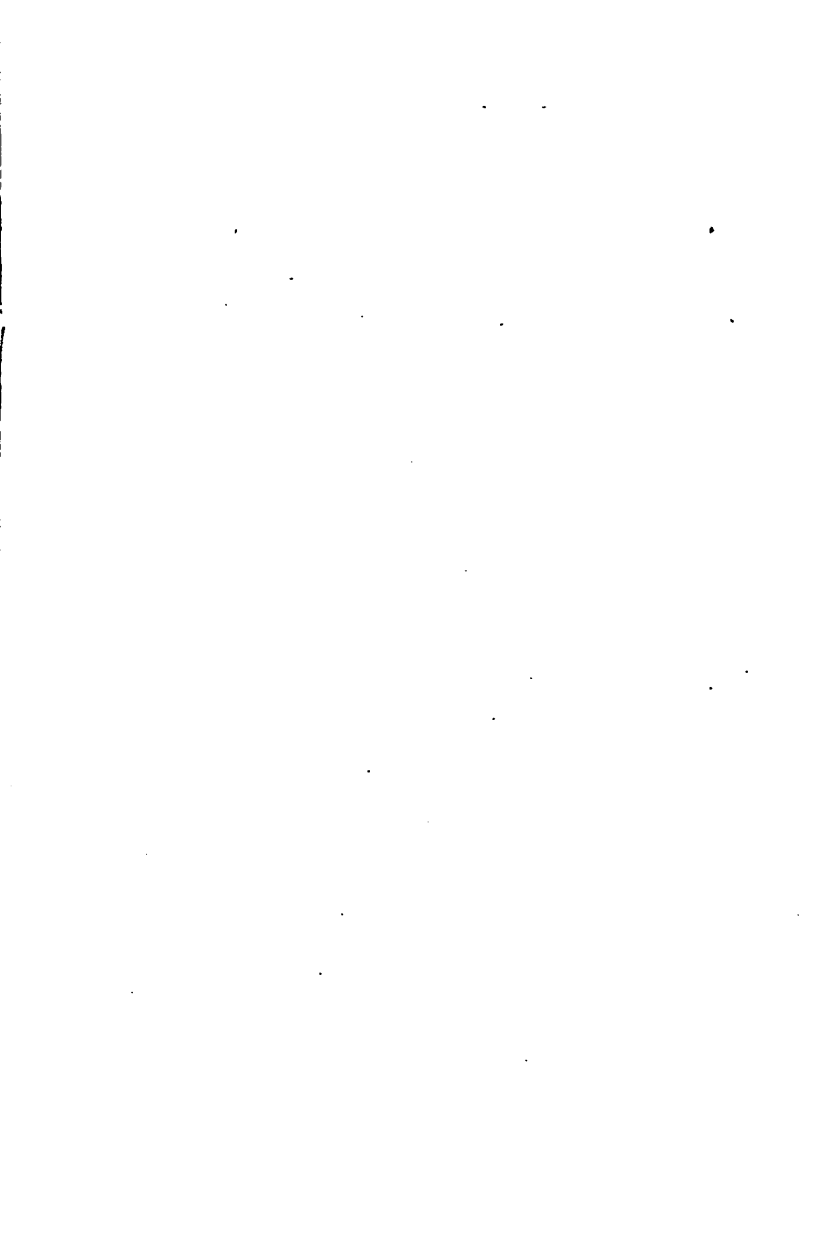
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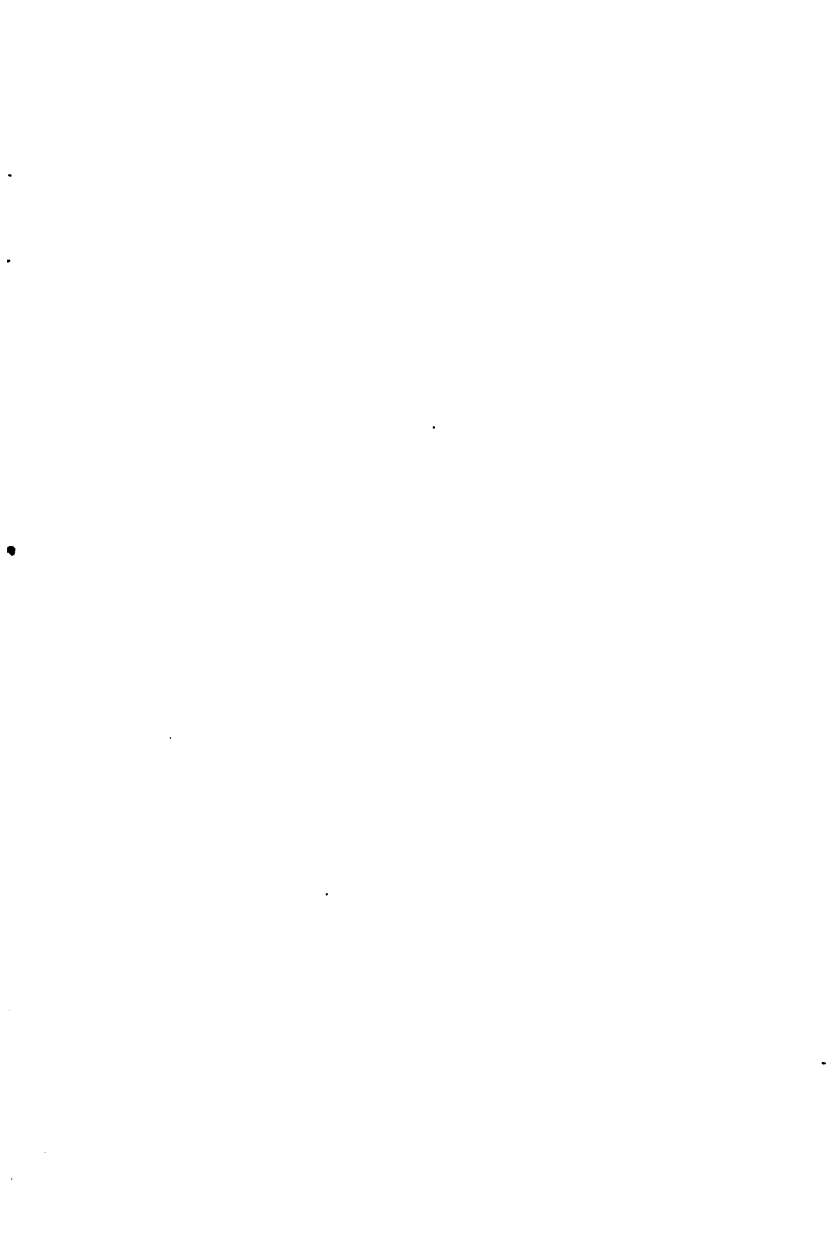
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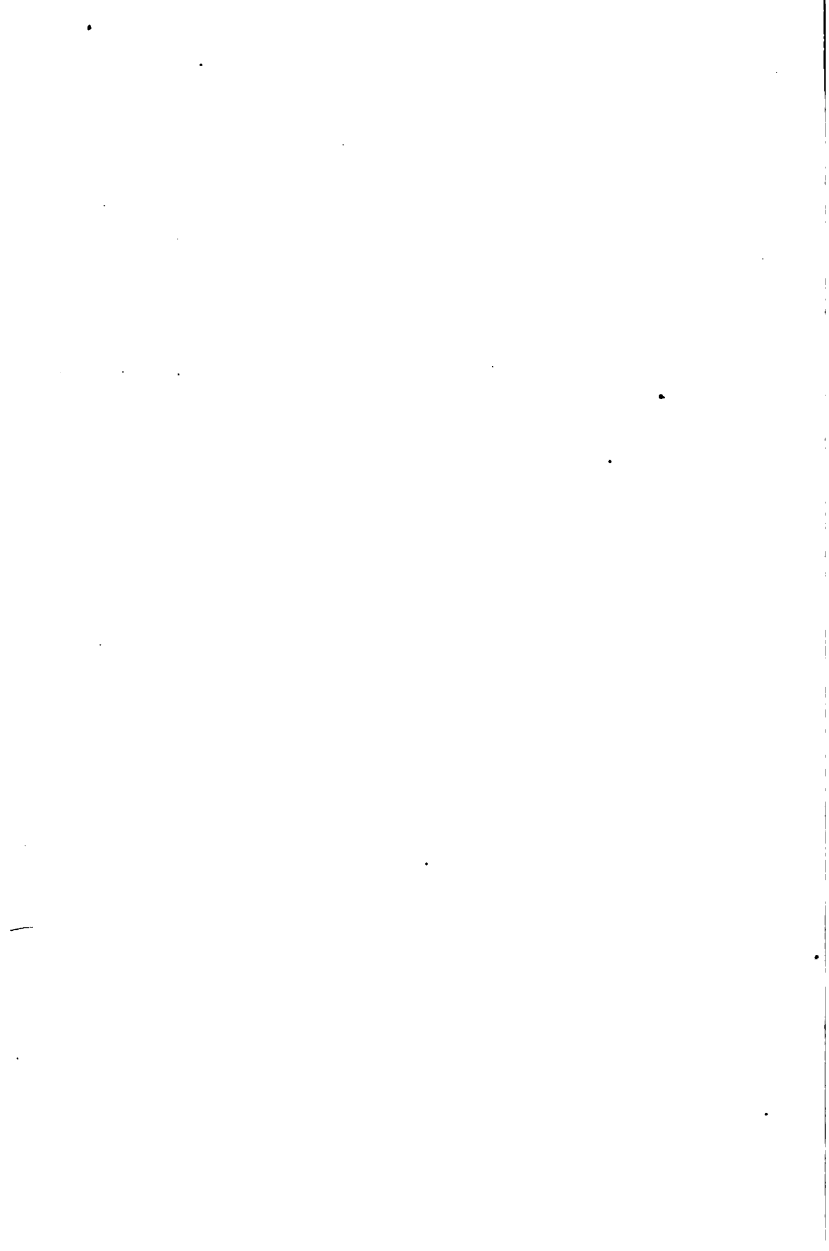






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ILLUSTRATED LESSONS
IN
OUR LANGUAGE;
OR,
HOW TO SPEAK AND WRITE CORRECTLY.

DESIGNED TO TEACH

ENGLISH GRAMMAR, WITHOUT ITS TECHNICALITIES.

BY

G. P. QUACKENBOS, LL. D.,

AUTHOR OF "FIRST LESSONS IN COMPOSITION," "ADVANCED COURSE OF COMPOSITION
AND RHETORIC," "AN ENGLISH GRAMMAR," ETC.

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P R E F A C E.

THIS little volume is the result of an earnest effort to teach young children, in a natural and common-sense way, how to speak and write correctly,—to enable them to master the leading principles of English Grammar, without its technicalities, easily and thoroughly because intelligently and practically. It leaves out of sight the formidable legion of inflections and conjugations, divisions and subdivisions, observations and exceptions, once considered indispensable, and seeks in stead from the very outset to familiarize the learner with the use of language as an every-day reality of prime importance,—not as a mere theoretical abstraction. It substitutes for the dry routine of verbal parsing, with its endless round of definitions and rules, a variety of oral and written exercises teaching the art of expression inductively; which exercises, it is believed, if faithfully followed, will lead the youthful traveller by the easiest and pleasantest route through the cunning mazes of speech. It aims especially to do away with rote-learning, and make the language-lesson a vehicle of valuable mental discipline.

The subject is developed substantially by Object-lessons. Correct models are given, to be written on the black-board, considered and discussed by the class. Attention is directed to the special point to be taught, by questions which the learner is required to answer from his own inspection. He is thus made to deduce the principle for himself; and it is then embodied in few words for memorizing, practically applied, and kept in mind thereafter by its repeated application in subsequent exercises. Pictorial illustrations from new designs made expressly for the work aid in this object-treatment of the subject, and will prove, it is hoped, no less useful than attractive.

Among the chief features of this manual are the extent and variety of its Exercises. Brought fully within the scholar's reach by models previously given, they will be found to divest the subject of its proverbial dryness,—indeed, to make what was formerly repulsive one of the pleasantest of studies. Let the student in no case attempt the Exercise till he p'

fectly understands the preceding text; and see that each Lesson is mastered before a new one is taken up. No link must be defective in a chain that is to be strong and permanent.

It is claimed that this book is complete in itself. It is not one of a Series. It presupposes no knowledge of Grammar; and unless, when used as a text-book by an intelligent teacher, it enables the faithful student, thrown upon the world with no other grammatical instruction, to speak and write correctly in all ordinary cases, it must be pronounced a failure. *In ordinary cases*; but, of course, those who would become proficient in all the niceties of language, in technicalities of nomenclature, in exceptions as well as general rules—students of High Schools and Academies, for instance—will need a comprehensive Grammar to follow it. For any such text-book, however, these Lessons will be found a fitting introduction, as they cover a much wider field than is usually embraced in the Elementary Grammars, and, dealing with no controverted points, are adapted to any system the teacher may prefer. It is believed that they will teach more grammar than these Elementary text-books, for which they are offered as a substitute, and do it more thoroughly and easily.

Much of our systematic grammar consists of matter practically of little importance because it has no bearing on correctness of speaking or writing. It is by passing over such matter that room is found for the great variety of Exercises here presented in connection with points on which there is special liability to error. Besides unusually full and thorough practice in the correction of false syntax, and in composition from the very commencement, punctuation, sentential analysis (according to a simple system, unencumbered by diagrams and requiring no elaborate preparation on the teacher's part), the leading principles of good style, oral criticism, business correspondence with a variety of mercantile forms, and especially *the means of securing fluency of expression*, receive careful attention.

Those whose experience in teaching Grammar according to the time-honored method has not been satisfactory, and who feel that something more is needed, are particularly solicited to examine, to test, the system here presented, in the hope that they may find it what they have long wanted,—or at least an advance in that direction.

A full Alphabetical Index at the end of the volume will facilitate reference, and takes the place of a Table of Contents.

NEW YORK, June 12, 1876.

LESSONS IN OUR LANGUAGE.

WE all know how to talk. We talk, in order to express some **Thought** that is in our minds.

We express thoughts with **Words**. Each word means something. By putting words together, we can make them express any thought we wish.

When a child begins to talk, it uses single words. But it soon learns to put two or three words together—then more—and thus it forms **Sentences**.

We can form sentences *without speaking a word*. When Captain John Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians, soon after Virginia was first settled, he told them that, if they would agree to release him, they should find in a day or two, in a certain place in the woods, a number of articles which he named. On going there at the appointed time, they found just what he had promised ; and taking him for a great magician, they let him go.

But he was no magician. He did no more than any of us could do. He had managed to get a letter to his friends, telling them what he had promised, and they put the things there. Though he had not spoken to his friends, he had expressed his thoughts to them. Thoughts, then, can be expressed by *writing* as well as *speaking*.

When we speak or write our thoughts, we must use words *correctly*. How to do this, we are going to learn.

Questions.—Why do people talk? When did you learn to talk? How did you learn to talk? What do you use, to express your thoughts? Besides talking, what other way is there of expressing thoughts?

Of what three letters is the written word *far* made up? Give the sound of each of these letters. Of what three sounds is the spoken word *far* made up? Of what is a written word made up? Of what is a spoken word made up? What do letters represent? What do words express? What are made up of words? Do you ever hear sentences used, and when? Do you ever read sentences, and when? What are we going to learn?

LESSON I.



1. *Here comes a load of hay.*
2. *The load is drawn by two oxen.*
3. *The oxen are driven by a man.*
4. *They are drawing the load to a barn.*
5. *On top of the load are three girls.*
6. *The girls are riding to the barn.*

How many thoughts are expressed in words beneath the engraving? Then we have six what? Of what is each sentence made up? Of what are the words made up, if read aloud? Of what, if written? Write the six sentences from dictation, just as they are given, on the black-board, slate, or paper.

You see that each sentence commences with a letter larger than the other letters. Such a letter is called a **Capital**.

You see that at the end of each sentence is a dot. This dot shows that the sentence has ended. It is called a **Period**.

EXERCISE.

Turn to page 5. Read aloud any six sentences on that page.

With what does each of the sentences you have read commence? With what does each end? What does each express? Are the sentences all equally long? Why is it that some sentences contain more words than others? How did you know when each of the sentences that you read ended? What is a capital? What is a period?



LESSON II.

You will see that in each of the six sentences under the engraving on page 6, something is *affirmed*—is said to be taking place or doing.

But words may be put together without affirming any thing; in that case, they do not form a sentence. *A load of hay* is not a sentence. *A load drawn by two oxen* is not a sentence.

We have sentences, when we affirm something about the load; when we say, *A load of hay is heavy*. *A load of hay passed by*.

EXERCISE.*

Tell which of the following are sentences, and which are not. Make sentences out of such as are not, by putting in or changing words.

Hay on the wagon. Fresh hay smells sweet. The oxen are yoked together. The oxen before the wagon. The horns of the oxen tipped with brass knobs. The horns of the oxen are very large. The man driving the oxen. The man cracks his whip. The man walking along. The man whistling as he goes. The girls on the load. A capital is larger than the other letters used in a word. A period being nothing more than a dot.



LESSON III.

This line — is called a **Dash**.

A dash is sometimes used to show that a word or words are left out.

EXERCISE.

Make sentences out of the following, by putting words in place of the dashes. Supply capitals and periods where needed.

Hay — out of grass Hay — in barns. horses and cattle —. girls like to — When the girls —, they will get down. After the man has driven into the barn, he will —. — will be glad to have the yoke taken off from their — As soon as the oxen are unyoked, they will —. In cities, we do not often see —

Write four sentences of your own, about the chickens in the picture on page 6. Be sure to spell the words right, and to put them together so as to affirm something.

Write four sentences about the lambs in the picture.

* TO THE TEACHER.—“Exercises” which the pupil is not specially directed to write, may be either recited or written, but it is recommended that they be written. All written Exercises should be examined with reference to neatness as well as correctness. Errors of every kind should be underlined, and the pupil required to correct them himself. To train the eye to the detection of written errors, it will be well occasionally to have the scholars exchange Exercises, and correct one another's according to the dictation of the Teacher.

LESSON IV.

Read the six sentences under the engraving on page 6; in each a *statement* is made. But a *command*, also, may be expressed in a sentence. Thus:—

1. *Drive the load of hay to the barn.*
2. *Get down, girls, when the oxen stop.*
3. *Charles, do not whip the oxen.*
4. *Come here, pretty lambs.*
5. *Be careful to keep in the road.*
6. *Look at the swallows flying.*

Each of these sentences expresses a command or request. Like the others, each commences with a capital and ends with a period.

Every sentence that expresses a statement or command should commence with a capital, and end with a period.

EXERCISE.

Make sentences that express a command or request, by inserting a word or words in place of the dash, using capitals and periods where needed:—

1. Mary and Bertha, take care you do not —
2. Ida, — Mary and Bertha, or they may slip off
3. Charles, do not — those pretty lambs
4. —, you noisy old rooster
5. — the beautiful clouds, tinged with gold
6. — spreading elm, with its graceful limbs
7. — whether that ox's foot is —
8. get — of the oxen, little —
9. — the barn-door, when —
10. — at the — on the fence
11. try whether you can —
12. — and — the oxen after their day's work

Write six sentences of your own, expressing commands.

LESSON V.

We have seen that something may be *stated* or *commanded* in a sentence ; a *question* may also be asked.

1. *Girls, do you like to ride on the hay?*
2. *Have you heard the old rooster crow?*
3. *Where are the oxen going with that hay?*
4. *What has frightened the lambs?*

You see that all these sentences, like the others, commence with capitals, but they do not end with periods. After each is this mark *?*, which is called an **Interrogation-point**. *Interrogation* means *question*.

Every sentence in which a question is asked, should commence with a capital, and end with an interrogation-point.

EXERCISE.

Complete these sentences, so that they may express questions, and place the proper mark after them :—

1. How do you know that —
2. What color is the prettiest for —
3. Why do we have —
4. When was —
5. Where were the first —
6. Who took care of you when —
7. — to write exercises?
8. — in England?
9. Is it pleasant to —
10. When this mark (?) ends a sentence, what —

Write six sentences of your own, expressing questions.



LESSON VI.

We have seen that in a sentence something may be *stated*, *commanded*, or *asked* ; an *exclamation*, also, may be expressed. For example:—

1. *How stately the elm-tree looks !*
2. *What a noisy rooster that is on the fence !*

3. *What beautiful sunsets we have this fall!*
4. *How the girls like to ride on a load of hay!*
5. *What a good driver Charles is!*

You see that all these sentences, like the others, commence with capitals, but they do not end with either periods or interrogation-points. After each is this mark !, which is called an **Exclamation-point**.

Every sentence that expresses an exclamation should commence with a capital, and end with an exclamation-point.

EXERCISE.

Complete these sentences, so that they may express exclamations, and place the proper point after them:—

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. How terrible is — | 4. What misery — |
| 2. What gorgeous — | 5. How grateful we — |
| 3. How few men — | 6. What a fine — |

With what two words do these sentences commence? With what two words do Sentences 1—5, at the beginning of the Lesson, commence? What words generally commence sentences that express exclamations? But remember that a sentence may commence with *how* or *what*, and not express an exclamation: *How did you go? What did you see?*

Write six sentences of your own, expressing exclamations.



LESSON VII.

EXERCISE.

Some sentences follow. Tell what each expresses (a statement, a command, a question, or an exclamation), and what point should follow each. Tell where a capital is needed, in stead of a small letter.

1. To thine own self be true
2. an honest man's the noblest work of God
3. how many flowers bloom unseen in the world
4. Whose love equals a mother's
5. Can the leopard change his spots
6. Owe no man any thing
7. we must avoid the appearance of evil

8. What comfort a single word has sometimes brought to the afflicted 9. idleness is the parent of crime 10. who goeth a warfare at his own cost 11. a soft answer turneth away wrath 12. how wicked it is to deceive 13. love all men as thyself 14. where will the weary be at rest



LESSON VIII.

A sentence that expresses a statement may, by a slight change, be made to express a command, a question, or an exclamation. Thus:—

<i>The tempest rages.</i>	(Statement.)
<i>Let the tempest rage.</i>	(Command.)
<i>Does the tempest rage?</i>	(Question.)
<i>How the tempest rages!</i>	(Exclamation.)

EXERCISE.

Change each sentence so as to make it express what is directed, and place the proper point at the end:—

1. Roses are generally regarded as the most beautiful of flowers. (*Question.*) 2. Did Moses write the first five books of the Bible? (*Statement.*) 3. Our country has made rapid progress. (*Exclamation.*) 4. You should not grieve those you love. (*Command.*) 5. Is gold still found in California? (*Statement.*) 6. Who wrote Pilgrim's Progress? John Bunyan. (*Change question and answer to one sentence, containing a statement.*)

7. What is Grammar? The art of speaking and writing correctly. (*Statement.*) 8. How many letters are there in the English language? Twenty-six. (*Statement.*) 9. How hard it is to learn the multiplication-table! (*Question; statement.*) 10. Dogs delight to bark and bite. (*Command; question; exclamation.*) 11. What a sweet singer the mocking-bird is! (*Statement; question.*)

Questions.—What may a sentence express? Try to make a sentence that will not express a statement, a command, a question, or an exclamation.

mation. A period must be placed after sentences that express what? What must a sentence express, to require an interrogation-point after it? An exclamation-point after a sentence denotes that it expresses what?

LESSON IX.

Houses are built on a foundation. Brick after brick, beam after beam, board after board, are added, till the structure is complete.

So sentences are built. We may start from a foundation, or **Base**, and add word after word till the whole thought that we desire to convey is expressed.

We start from the base, *Children study*.

We go on to tell what they study: *Children study their lessons*.

We may tell how they study their lessons: *Children study their lessons faithfully, carelessly*.

We may tell what kind of children study faithfully or carelessly: *Diligent children study their lessons faithfully. Lazy children study their lessons carelessly*.

We may tell when they study their lessons: *Diligent children study their lessons faithfully, every afternoon*.

We may tell where they study: *Diligent children study their lessons faithfully, every afternoon, at home*.

EXERCISE.

Build up one sentence like the above from each of the following:—

Farmers work. { (What kind of?) *farmers work* (how?)
(where?) (in what season of the year?)

The wind whistles. { (In what season?) *the* (what kind
of?) *wind whistles* (how?) (through
what?) (where?)

Hay is made: out of what? by whom? where? in what season? for what purpose?

Fish are caught: when? what kind of fish? are caught by whom? in what? for what purpose?

Boys have fun: in what season? how much fun do they have? in doing what? where? with whom?

Learn to sew.

Was discovered.

LESSON X.

We may take a house down, board by board, beam by beam, brick by brick, till we get to the foundation. So we may take a sentence to pieces, part by part, and tell what each part denotes, till we reach the Base.

Write (on black-board or slates) the following sentence:
In summer, bees may be seen gathering honey from flowers, to lay it up in their hives for winter use.

Take away *in summer*, which tells when they may be seen. What is left? Is it a sentence?

Next take away *for winter use*, which tells what they lay up honey for. What is left? Is it a sentence?

Next take away *in their hives*, which tells where they lay it up. What is left? Is this still a sentence?

Next take away *to lay it up*, which tells why they gather honey. What is left? Is this a sentence?

Next take away *from flowers*, which tells whence they gather honey. What is left? Is this a sentence?

Last of all, take away *gathering honey*, which tells what they may be seen doing. What is left? Is this a sentence?

Bees may be seen is the base on which this long sentence was built up. Build it up again, by adding the parts in succession, going backward, and tell what each part denotes.

If from the base *Bees may be seen*, we remove any one of its four words, will what is left be a sentence?

What word in this base expresses the **Subject** about which we say something? *What* may be seen?

Then *bees* is the Subject of the sentence.

EXERCISE.

Take to pieces, or analyze, as above, the following sentences:—

1. Gold was discovered in California, in 1848, near the town of Coloma. 2. On a summer morning, the birds warble their sweet songs of joy and gratitude. 3. In some countries of Asia, troops of jackals follow a lion in the night, to devour what he may leave. 4. During the Revolutionary War, General Washington with great bravery and prudence led the armies of his country till its independence was secured.

What is the base of each of the above sentences? What is the subject?

LESSON XI.

As we analyze sentences, so we may analyze words.

Spoken words, as we learned in Lesson I., are made up of sounds. Pronounce the word *slate*; analyze it into the sounds that compose it.

There are about forty simple sounds in the English language, of which all spoken words are made up.

Written words are made up of letters, which represent sounds. Write the word *slate*; analyze it into the letters that compose it.

There are twenty-six letters in the English language, of which all written words are made up. Taken in order, they constitute the **Alphabet**. Repeat the alphabet.

Some letters represent more than one sound; as *e*, in *me* and *met*. Give these two sounds of *e*.

Some sounds have more than one letter to represent them, as the first sound in the words *sell*, *cell*. What two letters represent this sound?

What is the sound, or *power*, of the letter *s* in *sell*? What is the name of the letter? The *power* of a letter, then, is quite a different thing from its *name*.

Sound *a, e, i, o, u*. Is the sound interrupted by the lips or tongue? Try to sound *p* alone. Is the sound interrupted? By what? Try to sound *t* alone. By what is the sound interrupted? Can *p* and *t* be sounded alone?

The letters *a, e, i, o, and u*, which can be uttered freely alone, are called **Vowels**.

The other letters, which can not be uttered without interruption from the lips or tongue, are called **Consonants**. Name the consonants.

Some words may be analyzed into **Syllables**, or parts pronounced with separate impulses of the voice; as,

HATTER,	<i>hat-ter</i> (two syllables).
POLICEMAN,	<i>po-lice-man</i> (three syllables).
DISPENSARY,	<i>dis-pen-sa-ry</i> (four syllables).
CONSTANTINOPLE,	<i>con-stan-ti-no-ple</i> (five syllables).

EXERCISE.

Give the different sounds of a, as found in the words can, cane, care, call, what. Give the sound of e in he, hen, her: of i in pin, pine, pique, fir: of o, in no, not, nor, one: of u, in us, use, fur.

Give the sound of th in both; in this. Give the sound of s in this; in is. Give the name and the power of the letter f; of l. Spell the word race; give the three sounds that compose it. Analyze orange into its simple sounds.

Analyze the following words, first into syllables; then into letters:—Dromedary; sunset; lunatic; cranberry; watermelon; Africa; incomprehensible; denominator.

LESSON XII.

Every thing that we can see, or hear, or touch, or taste, or think of, has a **Name**.

Name some things that you see. Name some things that you think of. Name some things in the picture.



*A boy and a girl are skating hand in hand.
James and Ruth are skating hand in hand.*

*A boy and a girl are riding on their sleds.
John and Mary are riding on their sleds.*

*A boy and a girl are sliding on the ice.
Henry and Ida are sliding on the ice.*

First we say each time *a boy and a girl* are doing something. We give them the same names—that is, **Common Names**—names common to all things of the same class. But we do not tell which boy and girl are skating, which are riding, or which are sliding.

But, if we say *James and Ruth are skating*, we give the boy and girl their **Proper Names**, which distinguish them from other boys and girls. Then we tell which boy and girl are skating—that is, James and Ruth—not John and Mary, or Henry and Ida.

Names are often called Nouns.

Are *boy* and *girl* proper or common nouns? *John* and *Mary*? *Henry* and *Ida*? *Man* and *woman*? *Mr. Smith* and *Queen Elizabeth*?

Look at the picture, near the tree: call the two persons standing there by *common* names—by *proper* names. Look at the animal near the skaters: name him by a common noun; give two or three proper nouns that would suit him as a name.

With what kind of letters do the words *James* and *Ruth*, *John* and *Mary*, *Henry* and *Ida*, commence in the sentences at the beginning of the Lesson? With what kind of letters do *boy* and *girl* begin?

Commence proper nouns with capitals.**EXERCISE.**

Select the nouns, or names, in the following. Classify them as common or proper; and tell which should commence with a capital, in stead of a small letter:—

Rivers; the Hudson, the ohio, the Mississippi. Mountains; the alleghanies, the white mountains. The red sea. What a virtue is patience! Rio janeiro is the largest city in south America. Trees; willow, maple, oak, ash. Have you ever sailed on the Nile, the largest river in Africa? Geographers distinguish five oceans; the atlantic, pacific, indian, arctic, and antarctic.

In the last sentence, do you see a little mark used to separate the names of the five oceans? This mark (,) is called the **Comma**.

Names used in a series are separated by the comma.

Which of the sentences in the above Exercise express a statement? Which expresses a question? Which expresses an exclamation?

**LESSON XIII.****EXERCISE.**

Write four proper names of boys; four of girls; four of cities; four of countries. The words boys, girls, cities, countries, are what kind of nouns?

Write four names of qualities (as, gentleness); four of actions (as, walking); four of virtues (as, temperance); four of vices (as, drunkenness). What kind of nouns are these?

A little story follows. Select the nouns, and as you mention each tell whether it is proper or common. How many commas do you find in the story?

THE PET LION.—A gentleman named Trappe, living in Africa, caught a young lion, and thought he would bring it up as a pet. He called it Leo, let it run about the house, and fed it himself; so that Leo loved his master, and would play with him like a kitten. In the course of time, Leo grew to be quite a big lion.

One day Mr. Trappe fell asleep on the sofa, leaving one of his arms hanging down. Leo, who was in the room, came up, and to show his affection began to lick his master's hand. But lions have very rough tongues, and soon Leo had rubbed the skin off, and blood began to ooze out. This was eagerly licked up by the animal, and the pain awoke Mr. Trappe. He attempted to draw his hand up, to see what was the matter with it, but the lion growled and would not let it go. He tried again, but Leo growled louder than before.

Mr. Trappe saw that the taste of blood had changed his pet into a wild beast. So, to save his own life, he slipped his other hand under his pillow, drew out his pistol, and shot poor Leo through the brain. After this, Mr. Trappe never made a pet out of a lion.

LESSON XIV.

There are several things I wish you to observe about the story just given.

The three words, **THE PET LION**, at the commencement, tell what the story is about, or form its **Title**. With what kind of letters do these words commence? Do you find these words commencing with capitals, when they occur in the story itself? Remember to

Commence with capitals the leading words in the titles of stories, books, chapters, and compositions.

After the title of the story, which forms a side-head, you see a period and dash. If the title had been placed *over* the story, a period alone would have been used.

Set off side-heads with the dash.

For the most part, one sentence immediately follows another. But twice, when we reach the end of a sentence, we find the rest of the line left blank, and the next sentence commencing a new line, a little in from the margin. This is called commencing a new **Paragraph**.

Commence a new paragraph, when you pass to a new branch of the subject.

In the story, *Mr.* is used for *Mister*. This is called an **Abbreviation**. When we thus shorten a word, we place a period after it: thus, *P. O.* means post-office; *inst.*, instant; *Esq.*, Esquire; *U. S.*, United States; etc.

Use the period, to denote an abbreviation.

Do you find any interrogation-point or exclamation-point used in the story in Lesson XIII.? Why not? What mark is used after every sentence? What do most of the sentences that you meet with express?

Exercise.—Write (or tell, if the teacher prefers) the story in Lesson XIII. in different words—in your own language.



LESSON XV.

<i>Orange ;</i>	<i>oranges.</i>
<i>A river ;</i>	<i>rivers.</i>
<i>One mat ;</i>	<i>three, ten, fifty, mats.</i>

Write these words in two columns, as above. Mention each noun in the first column, with the corresponding noun in the second. What differ-

ence of form do you observe in each case? As regards the number denoted, what is the difference of meaning?

To make the word *orange* mean *more than one orange*, what must we append to it? What does the letter *s*, appended to the word *orange*, make it mean? Would it be right to say *two orange*? What should we say?

Give the words that mean *more than one broom*; *more than one pineapple*, *chair*, *carpet*, *mug*, *alligator*. What is appended in each case?

A noun that denotes but one is said to be *in the singular number*, or **Singular**. A noun that denotes more than one is **Plural**.

The plural of most nouns is formed by appending *s*.

Proper nouns sometimes take *s*, to form the plural, when more than one having the same proper name are referred to; as, the *Browns*, the two *Catos*, the four *Georges*.

Exercise.—Turn to the second paragraph of the story in Lesson XIII. Change each common noun, so as to make it plural if it is singular, and singular if it is plural.



LESSON XVI.

Append *s* to the word *torch* (*torches*), and try to pronounce it. Will the sound of *s* combine in the same syllable with that of *ch* in *torch*? Try the same thing with the word *lash*, *guess*, *fox*, *waltz*.

Some nouns end with a sound, with which the sound of *s* will not combine in the same syllable. In the plural, these nouns take **es**, forming an additional syllable; as,

<i>One</i>	<i>Two or more</i>	<i>One</i>	<i>Two or more</i>
Stitch,	stitch-es.	Kiss,	kiss-es.
Dish,	dish-es.	Box,	box-es.
Lens,	lens-es.	Waltz,	waltz-es.

Most nouns ending in *o*, *i*, and *u*, also take **es**, to form the plural: as, *cargo*, *cargoes*; *alkali*, *alkalies*; *gnu*, *gnus*

Words ending in *y* not preceded by *a*, *e*, or *o*, form their plural by changing final *y* into *ies*: as, *cry*, *cries*; *colloquy*, *colloquies*.

EXERCISE.

Copy the following sentences. Underline the plural nouns not formed by appending s to the singular; spell the corresponding singular, and tell how the plural is formed:—*

1. Torches were placed in the porches of the churches, to light the heroes as they entered. 2. Even in cities, mosquitoes and flies are sometimes troublesome. 3. The solos were well sung by the ladies, and the echoes were distinctly heard in the boxes. 4. The gases from these volcanoes are hurtful. 5. Volumes of different size are distinguished as folios, quartos, octavos,† and duodecimos.

6. Cadies and rabbies followed by twos, arm in arm. 7. There were no dishes to serve the potatoes in. 8. Hippopotamuses, rhinoceroses, and gnues, are found in Africa. 9. Negroes and mulattoes are numerous in the West Indies. 10. Many spell *money*s, *monkey*s, *chimney*s,‡ and *valley*s, wrong.§ 11. One cameo; two cameos; three pianos. 12. Halos are circles of light; cantos are divisions of a poem; mementos are memorials, or souvenirs.



LESSON XVII.

Leaf, leaves.

Life, lives.

How many does the word *leaf* denote? The word *leaves*? In what number is *leaf*? In what number is *leaves*? Should we say *one life* or *one lives*? *Two life* or *two lives*? What is the plural of *life*? What is the singular of *lives*? How do *leaf* and *life* form the plural?

Most nouns ending in *f* and *fe* form their plural by

* If the pupil is at a loss for the singular, a Dictionary will assist him.

† What point is used after each of the last three words? Why?

‡ The singular being *money*, *monkey*, *chimney*, *valley*, why is not the plural *monies*, *monkies*, *chimnies*, *vallies*?

changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*: as, *beef*, *beeves*; *elf*, *elves*; *wife*, *wives*.

Some nouns form their plural quite irregularly: as, *man*, *men*; *child*, *children*; *ox*, *oxen*; *mouse*, *mice*; *goose*, *geese*; *tooth*, *teeth*.

Some nouns have two plural forms with different meanings. Thus *penny* makes *pennies* when distinct coins are referred to, but *pence* when a sum of money is meant. So we speak of the *brothers* of a family, but the *brethren* of a society—both words the plural of *brother*.

Some nouns are the same in the plural as in the singular: one *deer*, five *deer*; a *sheep*, fifty *sheep*.

To form the plural of a figure, letter, or sign, we append this mark ('), called the **Apostrophe**, and *s*; as, The printer needs some *5's*, *b's*, and *+'s*.

EXERCISE.

Copy the following sentences. Underline the plural nouns, spell the corresponding singular, and tell how the plural is formed from the singular:—

1. Some thieves have carried off the best sheaves of wheat and two well-grown calves. 2. Men, women, and children, trembled as the cannon were fired. 3. Our sportsmen have brought back five bass, three salmon, and two brace of grouse. 4. One mouse will do less mischief than five mice. 5. Oxen have teeth, but geese have bills. 6. Twenty sail have put into port to procure new sails.

7. How many peas are in a pod? How many bushels of pease will a bin four feet square and one foot high hold? 8. My brothers have all joined the United Brethren. 9. Brethren and chiefs, there are wolves in the fold. 10. Twenty head of cattle passed, and all the children turned their heads to look at them. 11. Boys, cut those loaves on the shelves into halves, with the knives I sharpened for you. 12. Dot your *i's*, cross your *t's*, and form your *7's* better. 13. Hysterics is worse than the measles.

LESSON XVIII.

Gentleman,	gentlemen.	German,	Germans.
Wisdom-tooth,	wisdom-teeth.	Tooth-brush,	tooth-brushes.
Father-in-law,	fathers-in-law.	Step-father,	step-fathers.
Man-child,	men-children.	Woman-servant,	women-servants.
Piano-forte,	piano-fortes.	Jack-a-lantern,	jack-a-lanterns.
Spoonful,	spoonfuls.	Miss Ray,	the Misses Ray.

Look at the above examples. How do compounds of the word *man* (like *gentleman*) form the plural? How do other words ending in *man* (like *German*) form the plural?

When the word *tooth* stands last in a compound (as in *eye-tooth*), which part of the compound takes the plural form? When it stands first (as in *tooth-powder*), which takes the plural form?

Which part of the compound takes the plural form, in such compound nouns as *father-in-law*, *step-father*? In such words as *spoonful*, *handful*? In *man-child*, *man-servant*, *woman-servant*?

Write a sentence containing the plural of *piano-forte*; write one containing the plural of *steam-engine*.

If we wish to name more than one Miss Ray, what should we say? More than one Master Picket? More than one Mrs. Fanshaw? *The Mrs. Fanshaw*. More than one Mr. Strong? *The Messrs. Strong*.

Some nouns have no plural, as *gold*. Some nouns have no singular; as, *scissors*, *ashes*, *clothes*.

EXERCISE.

Copy the following sentences. Give the singular of each plural noun, and the plural of each singular noun:—

1. Mothers-in-law are different things from step-mothers. 2. Children often suffer from headaches and toothaches. 3. The

Misses Green sent five basketfuls of oranges, to be distributed among their men-servants and maid-servants. 4. Galileos and Newtons are not produced every day. 5. The Turcomans are Mussulmans, but the Chinese are not. 6. Some of the best pianofortes in the world are manufactured in New York. 7. No news is good news. 8. The policemen and firemen were trying to find a boatman with a club-foot. 9. I saw the Messrs. Stone, the Masters Young, and Mrs. Clark.

Write four sentences expressing statements, containing respectively, 1. The plural of *man* and *woman*. 2. The singular of *oxen* and *horses*. 3. The plural of *rat* and *mouse*. 4. The singular of *brethren*.

Write four sentences expressing questions, containing respectively, 1. The plural of *goose*. 2. The plural of *cupful*. 3. The plural of *brother-in-law*. 4. The singular of *halves*.

Write two sentences expressing exclamations, containing respectively, 1. The singular of *hoofs*. 2. The plural of *monkey*.

Write two sentences expressing commands, containing respectively, 1. The plural of *thief*. 2. The singular of *wives*.

LESSON XIX.

Some English words of foreign origin retain their foreign plurals, changing *us* to *i*, *is* to *es*, and *um* or *on* to *a*; as,

Alumnus, alumni.

Animalculum, animalcula.

Crisis, crises.

Phenomenon, phenomena.

Some words of foreign origin take both the foreign and a regular English plural; as,

Beau, beaux or beaus.

Cherub, cherubim or cherubs.

EXERCISE.

*In the following sentences, give the plural of each singular noun, and the singular of each plural noun:—*1. In traversing Sahara, caravans halt in the oases, where they find water and

shade. 2. Parentheses do not generally add to the force of sentences. 3. In the gymnasium are a fine herbarium and several aquaria. 4. The effluvia of great cities are noxious. 5. We have few data from which to explain these singular phenomena. 6. *Cherubim* and *seraphim* are plural forms derived from the Hebrew.

Correct errors:—1. Buffalos and deers still abound in our western territories. 2. Here are twelve pence, to pay for three handful of seed. 3. Daughter-in-laws and mother-in-laws do not always agree. 4. The two Mr. Blacks are half-brothers of the Misses Careys. 5. I shall keep these mottos as mementoes of my first evening in Buffalo. 6. The sheafs of grain have all been taken in, and the leafs are beginning to fall.

Write the plural of arch; monarch; niche; topaz; reply; gulf; bread-knife; alley; peach; tooth-pick; gooseberry.

Write four sentences expressing questions, containing respectively the following nouns in the singular: 1. Mice. 2. Cuckoos. 3. Moneys. 4. Clothes-brushes.



LESSON XX.

An egg, one egg: two eggs, three eggs, four eggs, etc.

A rat, one rat: two rats, three rats, four rats, etc.

A one-dollar bill; a two-dollar bill; a ten-foot pole.

Write the expressions given above.

Is *egg* singular or plural? *Eggs*? In what number is *rat*? *Rats*? How many does *an* imply (*an egg*)? Should we say *an onion* or *an onions*? Must a noun with which *an* is used, be in the singular or plural?

How many does *a* imply? Must a noun with which *a* is used, be in the singular or plural? Should we say *a mouse* or *a mice*? What other form is there for *an*?

With *two*, *three*, and other words expressing numbers greater than one, must a noun be used in the singular or plural? Should we say *two fly* or *two flies*?

Should we say *a two-dollar bill* or *a two-dollars bill*?
A twelve-inch rule or *a twelve-inches rule*?

When a word expressing number is connected with its noun by a little mark (-) called a **Hyphen**, so as to form one word, the noun does not take the plural form. We say, *a two-horse wagon*, not *a two-horses wagon*.

EXERCISE.

Write the following, repeating the noun in the proper number where the dash occurs: One axis; two —. A beau; one —; three —. Several heroes; a —. Four deer; a —; three —. An ox; a hundred —. These phenomena; a wonderful —. Seraphim; two —; a —. Memoranda; a —. A sheep; twenty —. A sister-in-law; many —. The baby; the two —.

Write six sentences expressing statements and containing respectively the following; do not forget the hyphen. 1. A four-story house. 2. A five-mile walk. 3. Two-acre lots. 4. A three-minute horse. 5. A four-year-old colt. 6. Dull twenty-page pamphlets.

*Express the following in three words each:—*A barn that has two stories (*a two-story barn*). A rule two feet long. Tender chickens weighing four pounds each. A vial that will hold three ounces. Light wagons for one horse. A piece worth five cents. A bond for a thousand dollars.

LESSON XXI.

An, or **a**, implies how many, and is used with nouns in what number? Is it right to say *a ant*, *an dog*? What should we say? May *an* or *a* be used indiscriminately?

An ape. A boy.
 An inn. A fan.
 An egg. A cat.
 An oar. A rat.
 An urn. A unit.
 An heir. A hair.

Whether *an* or *a* is to be used, depends on the sound with which the following word commences. Look at the examples on the left.

An is used before words commencing with *a* and *i*, and most words commencing with *e*, *o*, *u*, and *h* not sounded. **A** is used before all other words.

A must also be used when the following word commences with the sound of *u* in *unit*; as, a unit, a ewe, a eulogy, a humor.

A must be used before *one*; as, a one-horse wagon.

A must be used before words commencing with *h* sounded; as, a hat, a hen.

EXERCISE.

Write sentences expressing questions, containing the following:—
An honest man. A one-sided story. A useful woman. An heir.
A universal history. A yew-tree. An idiot.

Supply AN or A where the dash occurs: 1. — hour ago, — hurricane passed over your father's barn, killing — heifer, — old cow, and — yoke of oxen. 2. — cup of coffee is often — great help to — traveller. 3. — good head of hair is something of — wonder nowadays. 4. — host of doubts; — indispensable article; many — one; — university education; — honorable position; — happy family; — iron will and — inflexible purpose; — humane disposition.

*Change to the singular with AN or A preceding:—*Uncles and aunts (*an uncle and an aunt*); parasols and umbrellas; eulogies; courts-martial; oaks and ash-trees; halos; mottoes; humorous stories; asylums and hospitals; European tourists; united efforts; hasty glances; units, tens, hundreds; dwarfs.



LESSON XXII.

In Lesson XX., the **Hyphen** is spoken of as connecting two words in one compound word; as, a *four-horse* stage. Make a hyphen. How does it differ in appearance from the dash? For what has the dash been used?

In compounds that are much used, the hyphen is dropped; as, *railroad*, *fireman* (not *rail-road*, *fire-man*).

When a written word is divided into its syllables, the hyphen is used to connect them; as, *mo-tion*.

The ear will generally guide us correctly in dividing a word into its syllables: thus, *lem-on*, not *le-mon*; *vi-cious*, not *vi-ci-ous*.

Remember that the terminations *SION*, *TION* (pronounced *shun*), *CIAL*, *TIAL* (*shal*), *CIOUS*, *TIOUS* (*shus*), *GEOUS* (*jus*), and others pronounced with one impulse of the voice, form but one syllable; as, *temp-ta-tion*, *cou-ra-geous*.

When a word, for want of sufficient space to get in the whole, has to be divided at the end of a line, the hyphen is placed after a complete syllable, and the rest of the word is carried to the next line. Show where the hyphen is thus used on page 28. Remember thus to use the hyphen in your compositions.

Questions.—How many uses have we found for the hyphen? What are they? Where is the period used? The interrogation-point? The exclamation-point? What four things do sentences express?

What is a noun? How does a proper noun differ from a common noun, in the idea expressed? How in appearance, when printed? Which do you more frequently meet with in sentences?

What is the effect of appending *s* to most nouns? Is every noun that ends in *s* plural? Mention one that is not; how can it be made plural? How is the plural of a sign or character formed?

Which was the original form, *an* or *a*? Why does *an* change to *a* before certain words? Should we say *an hyphen* or *a hyphen*? Why?

EXERCISE.

What kind of words are the following?—Sun-stroke; work-table; sewing-machine; hand-cart; watch-tower; black-eyed; red-hot. Analyze these compounds into the simple words that compose them. Write a sentence containing each compound.

Form ten compounds that you know to be in common use, by uniting two of the following words:—Water; house; light; wood; rose;

boat; bird; night; dog. *What is the difference between a house-dog and a dog-house? Where is the noun that expresses the leading idea generally placed in the compound?*

Analyze the following words into their syllables, connecting the syllables with the hyphen:—Work-women; discrimination; self-deceiving; precious; indefatigable; peaceable; pretension; umbrageous; presidential; discovery; sunset; steamboat; moonlight. Why is there no hyphen in the last three words?



LESSON XXIII.

Males.	Females.
Count,	countess.
Actor,	actress.
Executor,	executrix.
Hero,	heroine.
Julius,	Julia.
He-goat,	she-goat.
Nephew,	niece.
Landlord,	landlady.

Some nouns are the names of living things; others, of things without life (*give examples*).

Some living things have different names for the male and the female. Look at the two columns of words on the left; which contains the names

of males? Which, of females?

The names of males are said to be *in the masculine gender*, or **Masculine**; those of females, *in the feminine gender*, or **Feminine**.

Some masculine nouns are made feminine by adding or changing a termination. Give three examples from the above lists. The terminations *ess*, *ix*, *ine*, and *a*, are the most common ones in feminine nouns.

In some cases, the difference of gender is indicated by prefixing a word; as, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*. Or by the use of words entirely different; as, *uncle*, *aunt*. Select an example of each from the above lists.

Sometimes a noun applicable to either sex has a distinct feminine form; as, *lion*, *lioness*.

EXERCISE.

Tell which word in the following pairs is masculine, which is feminine, and which is applicable to either sex:—Emperor, empress; king, queen; princess, prince; tiger, tigress; administratrix, administrator; duchess, duke; czarina, czar; sultan, sultana; bear, she-bear; huntress, hunter; sparrow, cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; Cornelius, Cornelia; Theodora, Theodore; widow, widower.

Tell which feminines in the above are distinguished by a termination, and which by a prefixed word. Prefix AN or A (as may be proper) to the masculine common nouns; write the plural of the feminines.

Write the masculine:—Actress; mistress; hostess; goddess; Josephine. Write the feminine:—Jew; priest; shepherd; Augustus; hero; Irishman; Louis.

Complete the following:—1. The first husband of Mary, (king or queen?) of Scots, was (Frances or Francis?), afterward (king or queen?) of France. 2. The duke was a great (patron or patroness?) of letters. 3. Peter the Great having died, Catharine was left a (widow or widower?) and became (emperor or empress?) of Russia.



LESSON XXIV.

1. *Mary met Charles.*
2. *Charles met Mary.*
3. *Mary's sister met Charles's brother.*

The leading word in a sentence, denoting that about which something is affirmed, is called the **Subject**.

In Sentence 1 above, we affirm that *Mary* met some one; *Mary* is the Subject, *Charles* denotes the **Object** met.

In Sentence 2, we affirm that *Charles* met some one; *Charles* is the Subject, *Mary* denotes the **Object** met.

Observe that whether *Mary* denotes the subject or the object, it is still *Mary*. Observe that whether *Charles* denotes the subject or the object, it is still *Charles*.

In Sentence 3, we speak of *Mary's sister* and *Charles's brother*. The form of the proper nouns is now changed. When possession is to be denoted, *Mary* becomes *Mary's*, and *Charles* becomes *Charles's*. We add the apostrophe and *s* ('s).

For what, on page 23, did we find 's used? For what is it here used? Select the nouns in Sentence 3 above. Which is the subject? Which is the object? Which denote possession? Make the nouns *sister* and *brother* denote possession.

Add 's to a singular noun, to make it denote possession.



THE WINGED FISHERMAN.

The osprey, or fish-hawk, feeds its young with fish, which it catches in lakes or rivers. Flying a little way above the water, as soon as its keen eye discerns a fish near the surface, the watchful bird closes its wings, swoops down upon the water, and seldom misses its prey. Securing its victim in its talons, the winged fisherman then soars away to his distant nest, where the little birds await their supper with extended bills and fluttering pinions.

Sometimes, however, the birdlets are robbed of their repast. Some great eagle, who is too lazy to fish for himself, spies the nice fat chub or perch in the osprey's claws, pounces down upon it, and carries off the prize.

The picture illustrates this. The parent-bird is rising from the water with dripping feathers, having made a fine capture. Its nest is on a high rock in the lake, and there you see the young ones all ready for the titbit. But the robber is coming. Will the osprey fight, or will he give up the fish? Is there much chance that the little birds will get their supper? Perhaps the eagle will eat them next.

Exercise.—In the above sentences, select the nouns that are subjects. Which noun in the second paragraph denotes possession?

Write the above in your own language. (Describe the lake and the nest. How do you suppose the osprey and the young birds felt?)

LESSON XXV.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. A child's shoes; | children's shoes. |
| 2. A man's clothes; | men's clothes. |
| 3. An ox's horns; | oxen's horns. |
| 4. The minister's sons; | the ministers' sons. |
| 5. The lady's gloves; | the ladies' gloves. |

Write the above expressions as in the book. Read them in columns.

How is each singular noun in the 1st column made to denote possession? Make the change in each (*child, child's; man, man's; etc.*). Which of the plural nouns in the 2d column are made to denote possession in the same way—by adding 's? Make the change in each (*children, children's; men, men's; oxen, oxen's*). How are the last two (*ministers, ministers'; ladies, ladies'*) made to denote possession? Do you notice any difference of form between those plural nouns that take 's and those that take ' alone?

To indicate possession, add 's to singular nouns, and plural nouns not ending in s; add the apostrophe alone to plural nouns ending in s.

Of is often used before both singular and plural nouns, to denote possession ; as, *the horns of an ox* (equivalent to *an ox's horns*), *the sons of the ministers* (*the ministers' sons*).

But it is not always right thus to use *of*. We say *men's clothes* for sale,—not *the clothes of men* for sale.

On the other hand, in some cases, particularly of things without life, *of* must be used instead of *'s*. Thus we say, *the walls of the house*, not *the house's walls*; *the ornaments of the mantelpiece*, not *the mantelpiece's ornaments*.

EXERCISE.

Which of the following denote one, and which more than one? Which denote possession? For those that denote possession, give equivalents with OF.—Dromedary's; dromedaries; dromedaries'; servants; servants'; mice's; mouse's; nephew; nephews; Julius's; Julia's; geese; geese's; goose's; washerwoman; washerwomen's; sister-in-law's; sisters-in-law's; torches'; torch's.

*Give both the singular and plural form denoting possession:—*Frenchman (*Frenchman's, Frenchmen's*); dog; deer; hostler; waitress; German; belle; marquis; marchioness; thief; dwarf; cuckoo; man-child.

*Give equivalent expressions:—*The president's friends (*the friends of the president*); the sword of a hero (*a hero's sword*); freedom's voice; the farmer's cattle; the heat of the sun; a fireman's cap; the firemen's caps; the fox's brush; a fox's brush; the teeth of the baby; the flight of the eagle.



LESSON XXVI.

The nieces of the farmer's wife;

NOT, The nieces of the wife of the farmer,

or, The farmer's wife's nieces.

Avoid unpleasant repetitions of *'s* or *of*.

The prophet Jeremiah's lamentations ;
 not, The prophet's Jeremiah's lamentations.

Brown and Smith, the painters', store,
 or, The store of Brown and Smith, the painters ;
 not, Brown and Smith's, the painters', store.

The sign of possession is appended only to the latter of two nouns standing together (or *in apposition*, as it is called), one to explain the other.

William and Mary's reign. But one reign is referred to, William and Mary having reigned jointly. Both proper nouns denote possession, but the latter alone takes 's.

The rose's and the violet's odor are quite different. Two odors are referred to, the rose and the violet having each its own ; and each noun denoting possession takes 's.

When joint possession is denoted, the last of two or more connected nouns alone takes the sign ; when separate possession is denoted, each takes it.

How many nurses are denoted, if we say *Frank's, Florence's, and Grace's nurse* ? How many, if we say *Frank, Florence, and Grace's nurse* ?

EXERCISE.

*Complete by inserting a noun denoting possession:—*1. The — song is heard in the fields. 2. At Hay, the —, you can buy — boots, — gaiters, and — slippers. 3. Many painters have represented Daniel in the — den. 4. Goose-eggs are larger than — eggs or — eggs. 5. No one believes a — story. 6. — bonnets ; the — march ; our — house ; — clothes ; the — howl ; a good — prayers ; your — daughter ; — schools.

*Correct errors:—*1. Have you ever seen Henry's son's wife's father ? 2. In William's the Conqueror's reign, many Normans found their way to England. 3. The house of the daughter of the friend of my uncle. 4. Davids and Jonathan's friendship has passed into a proverb. 5. Call at Allen's, the blacksmith's, as you pass. 6. Ohio and Iowa's sons were both there. 7. Golds specific gravity exceeds silver's. 8. The parlor's occupant ; the house's roof ; womens' rights ; the collars of ladies ; St. Pauls Church ; this dic

tionary's author; the babie's mother; Charles' knife; these potatoes' owner; that office's furniture. 9. Coopers and Scotts novels can be procured at Riley and Grays. (*Express so as to indicate, 1. That Riley and Gray are partners. 2. That they have separate stores.*)

*Write six sentences containing the following; the engraving on page 32 will suggest ideas:—*1. The fish-hawk's talons. 2. The eagle's flight. 3. The osprey's nest. 4. The little birds' wings. 5. The surface of the lake. 6. Drops of water.



LESSON XXVII.

MARY'S SAUCE.

"I do not like my soup; please give me some that is better," said little Mary, one day at dinner.

"You shall have some for your supper that will please you better," answered Mr. Gray, her father.

Then he went out into the field to dig potatoes, and took his daughter with him. They worked with all their might till sunset, hoeing the potatoes out of the ground and gathering them in heaps. At dark they came in, tired and hungry.

The good mother prepared the supper, and set before Mary the same soup she had found fault with at dinner.

"Ah! this is good soup; I like this," said Mary. "Please give me some more."

The mother laughed, and, as she gave her little girl another plateful, kissed her and said, "It is the same soup you had; but now you are eating it with a sauce that makes it taste good."

What was the sauce?



Write the story given above, just as it is printed, and refer to it in answering the following questions:—

How many paragraphs are there in this story?

In the 1st paragraph, Mary is represented as saying certain words. These words are enclosed between two pair of marks (" "), standing a little above the line.

Imitate these marks on the black-board. The first two look like commas turned upside down, or *inverted*; the last two look just like what? These are called **Quotation-points**.

In which paragraph do you next see quotation-points used? What are they used to enclose there? Are quotation-points used in the 3d paragraph? In the 4th paragraph? Why not?

Why are quotation-points used in the 5th paragraph? How many times are they used in this paragraph? What Mary said, is broken into two parts. Give the first part; give the second part. *Said Mary* is thrown in between the two parts, and the quotation-points are so placed as to exclude *said Mary* from what she said.

In the next paragraph, what are quotation-points used to enclose? Why are there no quotation-points in the last paragraph?

Had the substance only, and not the exact words, been given, we should not have used quotation-points. Thus, *Mary pushed back her plate, and said she did not like her soup*—no quotation-points.

When we introduce, or *quote*, the words of another, they should be enclosed in quotation-points; as, *Thomson speaks of war as "only splendid murder"*.

Quotation-points are used to enclose words quoted, or represented as spoken in stories.

In stories, different persons are often represented as speaking. When one finishes and another commences, we begin a new paragraph. Do you find it so in the story on page 36?

Exercise.—*Point out each sentence in the story.* With what kind of letter does each begin? Why do *Mary* and *Mr. Gray* begin with capitals? In which sentence is a question asked? What mark stands at the end of this sentence? What does *Mr.* stand for? Why is the period used after *Mr*? Which noun in the second paragraph explains, or is *in apposition with*, another?

Write the story in your own language.

LESSON XXVIII.

Look again at the story on page 36.

Mary, speaking of herself, does not say, "*Mary* does not like *Mary's* soup; give *Mary*—" but "*I* do not like *my* soup; give *me*." What little words does she use in stead of her own name? These little words are used *for nouns*, and are called **Pronouns** (*pro* means *for*).

In the 2d paragraph, when Mr. Gray speaks to Mary, he does not say, "*Mary* shall have some for *Mary's* supper that will please *Mary* better." What word does he use in stead of *Mary*? What does he use in stead of *Mary's*? What are *you* and *your*? Why does he use *you* and *your*?

In the 1st sentence of the 3d paragraph, three pronouns are used for Mr. Gray's name; what are they? For what words is each used?

A person speaking of himself may use the pronouns *I, my, mine, me*; speaking of himself and another, *we, our, ours, us*.

A person speaking to another may use the pronouns *you, your, yours*; in solemn or poetical language, *thou, thy, thine, thee*.

A person speaking of a male may use the pronouns *he, his, him*; of a female, *she, her, hers*; of a thing, *it, its*; of more than one, *they, their, theirs, them*.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

A pronoun must be singular or plural, masculine or feminine, according as the noun is, for which it stands.

Write the pronoun *I* with a capital.

EXERCISE.

Of the pronouns mentioned above, write in separate tables,

1. All those that denote females only.
2. All those that denote males only.
3. All those that denote but one.
4. All those that denote more than one.

Underline such of the pronouns mentioned as occur in the story on page 36, and state what noun each stands for.

Substitute Harry for Mary in the story, and show what changes would have to be made in the pronouns in consequence.

*Complete by inserting the proper pronoun:—*1. Father, we implore — to grant us — blessing. 2. Nature, — art ever beautiful with thy smiling face. 3. Catharine, have — prepared — lesson? 4. Richard has — faults, and Susan has —. 5. Every tub must stand on — own bottom.

LESSON XXIX.

I see myself.

Take care of thyself. }

Take care of yourself. }

He helped himself. }

She helped herself. }

The child hurt itself.

Robert and I see ourselves.

Take care of yourselves.

They helped themselves.

Ida and Ben hurt themselves.

Read the above. Here we have some longer pronouns ending in *self*, plural *selves*.

Which of the pronouns in the above sentences denote one? Which denote more than one? Which denote females? Which denote males? Which may denote either? What noun does each pronoun stand for?

When you use these pronouns, be sure to spell them right. Do not say *theirselves*, *hissself*, *its self*, etc.

1. Morse, who invented the telegraph, was born in Massachusetts.

2. The moon, which looks so bright, has no light of her own.

3. The man and horse that were approaching, suddenly vanished.

Here we have three new pronouns, *who*, *which*, and *that*, used to introduce additional statements into the sentences.

What does *who* stand for? What statement does it introduce? What does *which* stand for? What statement does it introduce? What does *that* stand for? What statement does it introduce?

Who is applied to persons, **Which** to inferior animals or things, **That** to persons, animals, or things.

Try whether *which* or *that* may be used in stead of *who*, in Sentence 1. Try whether *who* or *that* may be used in stead of *which* in Sentence 2. Try whether *who* or *which* may be used in stead of *that* in Sentence 3.

In Sentence 1, can the statement introduced by *who* be left out without marring the sense—*Morse was born in Massachusetts?* It can, and the statement is set off with a comma on each side.

In Sentence 2, can the statement introduced by *which* be left out without marring the sense? Try it; where is the comma used in this sentence?

In Sentence 3, can the statement introduced by *that* be left out without injury to the meaning intended to be conveyed—*the man and horse suddenly vanished?* It can not, for we would not know what man and horse were meant. In this case no comma is required.

Set off with the comma statements introduced by *who*, *which*, and *that*, if they can be left out without marring the sense; otherwise not.

EXERCISE.

Correct errors:—1. Let those, who stand, beware lest they fall. 2. There is no man what sinneth not. 3. The vultures, that live among the Alps, often carry off lambs and kids. 4. Even the ox who is among the most patient of animals can be enraged. 5. That child can amuse its self. 6. Men which make the laws should not break the laws. 7. Some poor men pride their selves on their poverty. 8. Girls, look out for yourself, i say. 9. Cleopatra killed her self by the bite of an asp. 10. We are indebted to Du Chaillu who has travelled much in the interior of Africa for several interesting works.

Combine the sentences given under each number into one, connecting them with a pronoun, and using the comma when necessary. Thus:—1. General Harrison, who defeated the Indians at Tippecanoe, was afterward made president.

1. General Harrison defeated the Indians at Tippecanoe. General Harrison was afterward made president. 2. Alexander conquered others. Alexander could not conquer himself. 3. Japan long avoided intercourse with foreigners. Japan is now rapidly introducing the improvements of other countries. 4. Men do evil;

this evil lives after them. (*The evil that men do*, etc.) 5. Men do good; this good is often buried with their bones. 6. Homer wrote the greatest of epics. Homer was poor. Homer was blind. 7. The Nile overflows its banks every year. The Nile spreads a rich deposit over the country. The Nile makes Egypt fertile.

LESSON XXX.

Write Sentences 1, 2, 3, on page 39. Name the pronoun in Sentence 1. What noun does *who* stand for, or *relate to*? Observe that *who*, with the statement it introduces, immediately follows its noun *Morse*. Try placing it in any other position in the sentence—for instance, *Morse was born in Massachusetts, who invented the telegraph*—would this be right?

Name the first pronoun in Sentence 2. What noun does *which* relate to? Observe that *which*, with the statement it introduces, immediately follows its noun *moon*. Try placing it, with its statement, in any other position—at the end of the sentence, for instance; would the sense be preserved?

Name the pronoun in Sentence 3. What noun does *that* relate to? Observe that the pronoun *that*, with the statement it introduces, immediately follows the nouns to which it relates. Would it be right to place it in any other position? Try.

***Who, which, and that*, with the statements they introduce, should be placed as near as possible to the nouns to which they relate.**

Who whispered? *Which* of you whispered? *What* did you whisper?
I do not know *who* whispered. Find out *which* of the boys whispered.
He will not tell *what* he whispered.

The pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what*, are often used at the commencement of sentences in asking questions. Repeat the three sentences given above, in which they are so used. What mark follows each sentence?

Who, *which*, and *what*, are also used, in answering questions and otherwise, *indefinitely*—that is, without relating to any particular noun.

Repeat the three sentences given above, in which they are so used.

Try to find what noun *who* relates to, in the sentence *I do not know who whispered.*

Thus used, *which* may be applied to persons, inferior animals, or things; as, *which* of the boys, *which* of the dogs, *which* of the pens.

EXERCISE.

Write three sentences in which questions are asked respectively with who, which, and what.

Write a sentence containing who used indefinitely.

Write three sentences containing which used indefinitely—of a person—of an inferior animal—of a thing.

Write a sentence containing what used indefinitely.

*Introduce the words in italics in the proper place, with commas if needed:—*1. Out of jet are made handsome brooches (*which is a kind of coal*). 2. Every man ought to be thankful to Roger Bacon (*that uses spectacles*) (*who invented them*). 3. The climate of Florida is delightful in the winter months (*which has become a popular resort of invalids*).

4. Have you not read that Manhattan Island was discovered by Henry Hudson (*on which the city of New York is situated*)? 5. Viewed through the microscope, hairs are found to be hollow tubes, and our bodies to be covered with minute scales (*which enables us to see very small objects*). 6. The Spaniards say *that* a lie has short legs (*who have some capital proverbs in their language*).

*Correct errors in arrangement, etc.:—*1. Rivers sometimes entirely dry up in summer, that are roaring torrents in spring. 2. What did people do before soap was invented, which is now so common? 3. How i pity the poor man on such an inclement night, who has no home to go to! 4. Brutus conspired against Cæsar, who was an ardent lover of liberty. (*Make it appear that Brutus was the lover of liberty.*) 5. (*Introduce quotation-points.*) Who knocked? asked the terrified woman, hardly knowing what she said. If you open the door, you will find out who knocked, answered a gruff voice.

LESSON XXXI.

From $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Who} \\ \text{Which} \\ \text{What} \end{array} \right\}$ come $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Whoever, whosoever,} \\ \text{Whichever, whichever,} \\ \text{Whatever, whatsoever,} \end{array} \right\}$ (any one who).
 (the one that).
 (any thing that).

Whosoever committeth sin is the servant of sin.

That is, *Any one who* committeth sin, etc.

You may have *whichever* is the longer.

That is, You may have *the one that* is the longer.

I believe *whatever* you say.

That is, I believe *any thing that* you say.

Are *whoever, whichever, and whatever*, used to ask questions with? Are they used indefinitely? To what words is each of them equivalent? Give the longer form for each. From what simpler pronouns are they formed?

This is good; *that* is bad. The *former* advanced; the *latter* retreated. *Both* are the *same* to me. Question *each* and *every* of them. I will have *either*; I will reject *neither*. *One* comes; *another* goes; *none* stay. *Some* float; *others* sink; *all* swim. *Any* may depart. *Such* as wish, may go.

Above occur a number of words that are not names, or nouns, but represent nouns; hence they are pronouns.

As the above sentences are dictated, write them on the black-board; underline the pronouns. With what kind of letter does each sentence begin? What follows each?

This is good; *these* are good. — SINGULAR, *this*; PLURAL, *these*.
That is bad; *those* are bad. — SINGULAR, *that*; PLURAL, *those*.
Each tree; *every* leaf. — *Each* and *every* are SINGULAR.

John and James hurt *each other*.

John, James, and Jacob, hurt *one another*.

Either of the two; *any* (or *any one*) of the three.

Neither of the two; *none* (or *no one*) of the party.

Use *each other, either, and neither*, when two are spoken of. Use *one another, any* (or *any one*), and *none* (or *no one*), when more than two are spoken of.

EXERCISE.

Substitute one equivalent pronoun for the words in italics:—1. Try to succeed in *any thing that* you undertake. 2. You are welcome to *the one that* pleases you best. 3. *Any one who* is the slave of intemperance serves a hard master. 4. *Any thing that* is worth doing, is worth doing well. 5. *Any one that* does not admire the autumn tints of a New England forest, has no soul for the beautiful.

Where a dash occurs, insert the proper pronoun:—1. Here Santa Anna and General Taylor met; the — had the larger army, the — had the better men. 2. Which of the two will you take; I will take —, for I like —. 3. We should do — seems right, not minding what — or — may say. 4. On hearing —, the passengers were appalled; — wept, — prayed, — expected to be saved. 5. — were armed; — had his deadly rifle. 6. Twins often entertain the strongest attachment to (*each other or one another?*)

Correct errors:—1. There is no getting along with *those* sort of men. 2. Will you lend me *this* scissors. 3. Men are too often envious of *each other*. 4. Each workman must see to *their* own tools. 5. Here are twenty good ones; take *either* you choose. 6. Beautiful women do not always admire *each other*.

7. *Neither* of my three brothers is as tall as I. 8. What do you think of *these* news. 9. True merit and modesty often accompany *one another*. 10. Every voter should examine into the question for *themselves*, and exercise *their* own judgment. 11. The house has been finished this three months. 12. Carry out this ashes.



LESSON XXXII.

Review Lesson XXIV., page 31.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Ida saw Ben. | She saw him. |
| 2. Ben saw Ida. | He saw her. |
| 3. Ben's sister saw Ida's brother. | His sister saw her brother. |

Which of the above sentences contain nouns? Which contain pronouns? Referring to the corresponding sen-

tences in the first column, tell what each pronoun in the second column stands for.

A noun or pronoun may stand in one of three relations to other words in the sentence: it may be the Subject, it may be the Object, or it may denote Possession.

Select the nouns that are subjects, in the sentences of the first column above. Select the corresponding pronouns, which are subjects, in the second column. Select the nouns that are objects, in the first column. Select the corresponding pronouns, which are objects, in the second column. Select the nouns that denote possession, in the first column. Select the corresponding pronouns, which denote possession, in the second column.

In expressing which of these relations, is the form of the noun changed? Do you find, in the above sentences, the forms of the pronouns *he* and *she* changed, to mark these different relations?

She being the subjective form, find the corresponding objective form used above. Find the corresponding possessive form. *He* being the subjective form, find the corresponding objective form used above. Find the corresponding possessive form.

Some pronouns have distinct Subjective and Objective forms, which must not be interchanged.

Subjective Forms.—I, Thou, He, She, We, They, Who.

Objective Forms.—me, thee, him, her, us, them, whom.

Objective forms follow *at, after, before, between, by, for, from, in, into, of, over, to, with, without*, and other words expressing relations of time, place, etc.; as, Between *him* and *me* (not *he* and *I*).

EXAMPLES.—Write the sentences correctly, and of each pronoun state whether the subjective or objective form is used:—

I (not *me*) laughed.—Charles and she (not *her*) will go.—Whom (not *who*) did you see?—Who spoke? I (not *me*, for the meaning is *I spoke*).—Whom did he speak to? Me (not *I*, for the meaning is *He spoke to me*).—Name whomever, or whomsoever, you choose (not *whoever* or *whosoever*).—We will give the prize to whoever (not *whomever*) deserves it.—It is he (not *him*).—None were happier than I (not *me*).—Who so graceful as she (not *her*)?—He will do it for you and me (not *I*).

LESSON XXXIII.

Some pronouns have distinct forms to denote *possession*. And some have *two* possessive forms, one to be used with, and the other without, the name of the thing possessed.

Possessive Forms. — My, mine; thy, thine; his; her, hers; its; our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs; whose.

EXAMPLES.—*Select the pronouns in the possessive form, and of each state whether it is used with or without the name of the thing possessed:—*

My friend; a friend of mine. Thy heart; that heart of thine. His letters; some letters of his. Her sisters; two sisters of hers. Its beginning and its end. Our boy; this beloved boy of ours. Your houses; houses of yours. Their property; property of theirs. Wisdom, whose ways are pleasantness.

Are any apostrophes used in these possessive forms?

EXERCISE.

*Correct errors of every kind, and insert quotation-points where needed:—*1. Time and me, king philip II.* of spain used to say, are a match for any two. 2. Can not me and you row the boat across! 3. Is it me to whom you allude? asked the sheriff. I will not say who i allude to, replied Dr Black? 4. Let you and I start at once. 5. Who do you think she was laughing at — Mary or he. 6. Them that win, may laugh. 7. The others, said Edward, had a better chance than us.

*Complete the sentences, and correct errors:—*1. It is (*her or she?*) that is causing the trouble. 2. Napoleon, who his Old Guard almost idolized, was familiarly called "the little corporal. 3. (*My or mine?*) friend, what has become of you. 4. Be it (*my or mine?*), cried the bold sergeant, to defend the flag." 5. None are so blind as those which will not see. 6. Let whomsoever will, come. 7. Every parent is apt to think their own child faultless.

* Always place a period after letters used thus to denote numbers.

LESSON XXXIV.

Do not use *hish* for HIS; *hern* for HERS;
ourn for OURS; *yourn* for YOURS;
theirn for THEIRS; *who's* for WHOSE.

These possessive forms do not take the apostrophe.

Do not use *this here*, or *this 'ere*, for THIS;
these here, or *these 'ere*, for THESE;
that there, or *that 'ere*, for THAT;
those there, or *those 'ere*, for THOSE;
them for THOSE (not *them* maps, but *those* maps).

“War flings his torch into the doomed hamlet; Peace strews her blessings o'er the plain.”

Mention the two subjects in the above sentence. As commonly used, what kind of nouns are *war* and *peace*? As here used, with what kind of letters do *war* and *peace* commence?

When represented as doing what only persons can do, or when spoken to as persons, things without life are said to be **personified**. *War* and *peace* are personified in the above sentence.

The names of objects personified must commence with capitals.

In the above sentence, what pronoun is used, relating to *War*? Is *his* masculine or feminine? What pronoun is used, relating to *Peace*? Is *her* masculine or feminine?

Great, fierce, terrible objects are personified as males, and pronouns relating to them must be masculine.

Gentle, delicate, beautiful objects are personified as females, and pronouns relating to them must be feminine.

With objects personified use *who*, not *which*; as, “Smiling Spring, *who* scatters her sweet-scented blossoms in our path.”

EXERCISE.

Name the objects personified, and complete by inserting the proper pronouns:—1. Consoling Faith points with — finger to the skies. 2. Listen not to Pleasure, (*which* or *who*?) whispers — alluring tales only to deceive. 3. Revenge, with — heart of flint, spares not — dearest friends. 4. Blind, indeed, is Justice; — eyes are always bandaged. 5. Stern and pitiless, Hate shoots — poisoned arrows.

Write three sentences containing the Moon, Liberty, and War, personified.

Correct errors:—1. Here i and sorrow sit. 2. This land is neither your's, nor their's, but ourn. 3. Pass them apples to Mr Banks. 4. Her's is a hope who's foundation is secure. 5. They whom he loves, he chastens. 6. Take that 'ere meal to the mill. 7. Are this oats yourn. 8. I have been looking all day for this here knife. 9. I thought it was hisn, but found out it was hern.



LESSON XXXV.

On the opposite page we have a picture of a fountain. What kind of a fountain is it?

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. A large fountain. | 6. A well-built fountain. |
| 2. A high fountain. | 7. A light-colored fountain. |
| 3. A pretty fountain. | 8. A valuable fountain. |
| 4. A handsome fountain. | 9. One fountain; this fountain. |
| 5. A marble fountain. | 10. The only fountain. |

Select the words used above to describe the fountain, to tell about its size—appearance—material—construction—color—value. Select the words that limit the meaning of *fountain*.

These words are not the names of things, nor do they stand for the names of things; but they qualify or limit the meaning of the noun *fountain*. They belong to a new class of words, called **Adjectives**.

An adjective may be joined to a pronoun, as well as a noun. Speaking of the fountain, we may say, *It is large, it is pretty, it is well-built*, etc.

An Adjective is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun.



THE DRINKING-FOUNTAIN.

Name some of the objects in the picture ; these names are all what ?

Write all the adjectives you can think of, suitable to describe the *street* shown above (a *wide* street, a *clean* street, etc.). Write as many adjectives as you can, that will apply to the *horse* ; the *dog* ; the *woman* ; the *old man* ; the *pigeons*. All these words are what ?

“From Scotland comes Scotch ale ; from Ireland, Irish linen.”

What adjectives do you find in the above sentence ? From what proper noun is *Scotch* derived ? *Irish* ? How do *Scotch* and *Irish* commence ?

From Proper Nouns are derived Proper Adjectives, which must commence with capitals.

There is a large class of adjectives that express number ; as, *few, many, several, four, twenty-five, first, double*.

EXERCISE.

Select the adjectives in the story on pages 32, 33.

Write the proper nouns from which these proper adjectives come:—English; Jewish; Portuguese; Welsh; Washingtonian; Norwegian; Egyptian; Scottish; Peruvian; Danish; Sicilian; Genoese; Venetian.

Form proper adjectives from South America; Moses; Brazil; France; Persia; Napoleon; India; Asia; Alps; Europe; Mexico; Prussia; Britain; Austria; Canada.

Join each of the proper adjectives just formed to an appropriate noun: as, South American countries; the Mosaic account; etc.

Correct errors:—The Chineese language; roman virtue; the Spanish government; the Central America republics; Grecian history; japanese fans; scottish snuff; the Asian countries; the mohammedan religion.



LESSON XXXVI.

Turn to the engraving on page 49.

Henry, Paul, and Fritz, are playing leap-frog. Henry, who stands waiting his turn, is *young*; Paul, who is in the act of leaping, is *younger*; Fritz, whose body is bent, is the *youngest*. The quality of youth belongs to all three, but in different degrees. These degrees are denoted by varying the form of the adjective YOUNG: *young, younger, youngest*.

Two men are standing near the fountain. How would you say that one has the quality of largeness in a higher degree than the other? (*One is — than the other.*)

If you wished to speak of that one of the pigeons which has the quality of plumpness in the highest degree, what would you say? (*The —.*)

How many men are shown in the engraving? Which is the *oldest*?

The form of some adjectives may be varied, to denote different degrees of a quality. They are then said to be compared.

YOUNG is compared thus: *young, younger, youngest*.

From the simple form of the adjective, the **Comparative** is obtained by adding *er*. It denotes a higher degree

than some other. "Paul is *younger, smaller*, than Henry." The **Superlative** is formed by adding *est*. It denotes the highest degree of all that are compared. "Fritz is the *youngest, smallest*, of the three."

Compare *small, low, bright, dull, high, soft, tender, tough*.

Compare **VILE**. — *Vile, vil er*, (not *vileer*), *vil est* (not *vileest*).

Compare **HOLY**. — *Holy, holi er* (not *holyer*), *holi est* (not *holiest*).

Compare **HOT**. — *Hot, hott er* (not *hoter*), *hott est* (not *hotest*).

What is the final letter of *vile*,—that is, with what letter does *vile* end? What change is made in *vile*, before *er* and *est* are added?

What is the final letter of *holy*? What change is made in *holy*, before *er* and *est* are added?

What letter does *hot* end with? Is *t* a vowel or a consonant? By what letter is *t* in *hot* preceded? Is *o* a vowel or a consonant? What change is made in *hot*, before *er* and *est* are added?

In some cases, adjectives undergo a change, when *er* and *est* are added to form the comparative and superlative:—

1. Final *e* is rejected; as, *fine, fin er, fin est*.

2. Final *y*, if preceded by a consonant, is changed to *i*; as, *heavy, heavier, heaviest*.

3. In words of one syllable, a final consonant, preceded by but one vowel, is doubled; as, *thin, thinner, thinnest*.

If two vowels precede, the final consonant is not doubled; as, *cool, cooler, coolest*.

EXAMPLES.—Write the comparative and superlative of *crude*; *dainty*; *sad*; *sweet*; *large*; *deep*; *homely*; *fierce*; *lowly*; *proud*; *angry*; *feeble*; *great*; *easy*; *gentle*; *stout*; *quiet*.

If a person has *supreme* power, can any one have *supremes* power? If a thing is *entire*, can any thing be *entirer*? Would it suit your ear to say "a *delightfuler* evening," "the *amusingest* story"? What would you say in stead of *delightfuler*? In stead of *amusingest*?

Some adjectives do not form a comparative and superlative in *er* and *est*:—

1. Because their meaning does not admit of degrees. This is the case with such as express number, with proper adjectives, and with many others—as, *infinite*, *daily*, *wooden*, etc.

2. Because adding *er* and *est* would make ill-sounding words. This is the case with some adjectives of two syllables, and all of more than two. We must not say *gracefuler*, *gracefulest*—*agreeabler*, *agreeablest*.

Use in stead *more* or *most*, with the simple form of the adjective; *more graceful*, *most graceful*—*more agreeable*, *most agreeable*.

More and *most* with the simple adjective may also be used, in many cases, as equivalents for the comparative and superlative in *er* and *est*. We may say,

BRIEF—*brief*, *briefest*, or *more brief*, *most brief*.

AMPLE—*ample*, *amplest*, or *more ample*, *most ample*.

EXERCISE.

THE FORCE OF CUSTOM.—Many people do things because their fathers did them, without themselves knowing the why or wherefore.

Napoleon is said once to have found an old empty house guarded by a military patrol. The faithful sentinel knew that he was posted there, but why he had not the slightest idea. By diligent inquiry it was found that, two hundred years before, the building had been used for a short time by the French government as a depository of military stores. Strict guard had been kept over it ever since, though inside there was nothing but sportive rats to guard.

Write the adjectives in the above extract, in three lists. In the 1st, place those which by reason of their meaning are not compared; in the 2d, those that take *er* and *est*, writing out these forms; in the 3d, those that take *more* and *most* to denote the degrees, writing out these forms. State what noun each adjective relates to. How does the adjective generally stand, as regards its noun?

LESSON XXXVII.

A *good* man; a *better* man; the *best* man.

What adjective is compared above? Is it compared regularly or irregularly? Would it be right to say a *gooder* man—the *goodest* man?

Some short adjectives in common use have irregular comparatives and superlatives. Learn the following:—

	Comp.	Sap.		Comp.	Sap.
Good,	better,	best.	Far,	farther,	farthest.
Bad, evil, ill,	worse,	worst.	Late,	{ later,	latest.
Little,	less, lesser,	least.		{ latter,	last.
Many,	more,	most.	Old,	{ older,	oldest.
Much,	more,	most.		{ elder,	eldest.

Lesser is rarely used in prose (*the lesser vices*); *less* is the common form.

Later and *latest* refer to time; *later news*, *the latest departure*.

Latter and *last* refer to order; *the latter word* (as opposed to the *former*), *the last word on the page*.

Elder and *eldest* may be used when members of the same family are spoken of; *the eldest sister*. But *older* should be used when *than* follows.

In some superlatives, *most* is appended. We speak of the *foremost* soldiers, the *hindmost* row, the *inmost* court, the *outermost* line, the *utmost* care, the *uppermost* tier.

Give one adjective that will express *farthest toward the outside*—*most remote from the outside*—*in the front rank*—*above all the rest*. In what degree are these adjectives?

If you wish to speak of a boy *that has a good temper*, how can you do it in the fewest words? (*A — boy.*) A boy *that has a better temper* would be called a — *boy*. The boy *that has the best temper* would be *the — boy*. A single adjective, then, may express the meaning of how many words?

A **Compound Adjective** is one that is formed from or of two simple words; as, *good-tempered*, *soft-spoken*.

What mark is used to connect the parts of	{	Good-tempered,	better-tempered,	best-tempered ?
		Ill-natured,	worse-natured,	worst-natured ?
Fine-looking,		finer-looking,	finest-looking ?	
Dark-eyed,		darker-eyed,	darkest-eyed ?	
Sweet-toned,		sweeter-toned,	sweetest-toned "	
Which part changes, when we compare				

Some compound adjectives are compared by varying the first of the simple words that compose them. Give examples from the above list.

If a thing is *worse*, should we call it *worser*? There being no rank higher than the *highest*, is it right to say the *most highest* rank?

Comparatives and superlatives must not be further compared; nor should *more* and *most* be used with them.

Adjectives whose meaning does not admit of different degrees must not be compared; nor should *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, or *so*, be used with them. We should not say, *chiefest*, *most supreme*, *least perfect*, *more preferable*, *so entire*, etc.

EXERCISE.

Supply adjectives in the comparative degree:—A — mountain; a — church; — lakes; the — house; — horses; — girls; a city — than New York; flowers — than the lily.

Supply irregular comparatives:—An — brother; — luck; the —, the merrier; the — said, the better; — laborers are needed.

Write one compound adjective equivalent to each group of words, and give its comparative and superlative (remembering the hyphen):—Having a warm heart; that has a light complexion; in the habit of speaking softly; having a tender heart; having an ill nature; having a slow motion; that has bright eyes; whose mind is fair.

Correct errors:—1. James said that Grammar was his worstest study. 2. The generous man takes the littler share for himself. 3. Nothing is more truer than that money is a root of evil. 4. The most soft spoken men are not always the most good-humored. 5. The eldest of these trees is the littlest and the least healthiest. 6. So infinite is space that we can form no idea of its extent.

7. The fartherest route is sometimes the most preferable. 8. My brother is elder than my sister. 9. Switzerland has a freer government and is in a much more better condition than Spain. 10. The most hot and low countries are in many cases the most unhealthiest. 11. A more inferior position could hardly be found. 12. Our chiefest pleasures are sometimes the hurtfulest.

13. Business is deader than ever. 14. The most universal indifference prevails on this subject. 15. The deafest man is he which will not hear. 16. How much more is the Caucasian superior to the other races! 17. Even the most faultless character has its defects. 18. The eldest friends are generally the faithfulest.



LESSON XXXVIII.

- RIGHT. 1. London is the larger of the two cities.
 2. London is the largest of the three cities.
 3. London is larger than any other city.

- WRONG. 4. London is the largest of the two cities.
 5. London is larger than any city.
 6. London is the largest of oriental cities.
 7. London is the largest of all other cities.
 8. London is the largest of any city.

4. WRONG, because, but two being compared, only a higher degree is to be denoted. Say *larger* in stead of *largest*.

5. WRONG, because London is itself a city, and it is not larger than itself. Say *any other city*, thus excluding London.

6. WRONG, because this would imply that London is an oriental city. Say *larger than any oriental city*.

7. WRONG, because London is itself a city, and should not be excluded by *other*, the superlative being used. Say *the largest of all cities*.

8. WRONG, because the use of *largest* implies that several are compared, whereas *city* denotes but one. Say *the largest of all cities*.

In comparing two objects, use the Comparative; in comparing more than two at once, the Superlative.

After a Comparative, use *other* with the latter term compared if it includes the former, and only then.

After the superlative use neither *other* nor *any* with the latter term.

Use *to*, not *than*, after the comparatives *superior*, *inferior*, *anterior*, *posterior*, *prior*; as, "The Deluge was prior to the Dispersion."

Use the pronoun *that*, not *who* or *which*, after a superlative—also after the adjectives *very* and *no*; as, “The ugliest dog *that* (not *which*) I ever saw.” “The *very* dog *that* (not *which*) passed yesterday.” “No man *that* (not *who*) lives, could have borne it.”

Use adjectives appropriately, and without undue exaggeration.

Few means *not many*; *little* means *not much*. “We have *few* fears, but *little* fear.” “Not *fewer* than fifty persons were present.”

Do not speak of *terrific*, or *horrible*, or *awful*, or *beastly* weather, if you mean simply bad or unpleasant weather. Nor of a *sweet*, *angelic*, *gorgeous*, *splendid*, or *stunning* dress, if you mean merely a very handsome dress.

EXERCISE.

Supply adjectives in the superlative:—The — babies; our — thoughts; the — fire; my — hours; the — season; the — steamboats; your — shoes; her — brother.

Supply irregular superlatives:—The — chance; our — enemy; there is not the — excuse; — people are forgetful; the — row; the — line; the — layer; my — letter.

Correct errors:—1. Samson was the strongest of all his descendants. 2. Which sounds the sweetest to you, the harp or the guitar! 3. Antony had now little hopes of obtaining the empire. 4. The Connecticut is the longer of the two rivers, but the Hudson is the most picturesque. 5. No man who ever sat on the English throne was wickeder than John.

6. Which of the twins is the fatest? 7. Which is the longer, the Amazon, the Mississippi, or the Nile. 8. The Volga is the longest of any river in Europe. 9. A sweet pretty hat; an awful good supper; a horrid man. 10. The rose is the most fragrant of any other flower. 11. Than Shakespeare what poet is superior?

12. Though my barn is larger than yours, your's is the prettiest. 13. The French are more polite than any nation. 14. Nero was the greatest tyrant whom history mentions. 15. The most principal exports of Japan are tea, silk, and rice; the former is the most important.

LESSON XXXIX.

"China contains a dense population. This population consists of an intelligent people. They are accustomed to work hard. They are well satisfied with themselves. They have not a great deal of courage."

Let us see whether we can not express the above more briefly and forcibly:—"China contains a dense population of intelligent, hard-working, but self-satisfied, and not very courageous, people."

How many sentences are there in the first paragraph? Into how many are they condensed in the second? What kind of words have we used, to express the different ideas so briefly? What adjective expresses *accustomed to work hard*? What adjective expresses *well satisfied with themselves*? What kind of adjectives are these? By what are their parts connected? What words express that *they have not a great deal of courage*? What mark is placed after each adjective in the series, in the condensed sentence?

A single adjective may denote what it would otherwise require several words to express.

Would you say *a marble ornamental fountain*, or *an ornamental marble fountain*? *A spirited white horse* or *a white spirited horse*? *An old dignified man* or *a dignified old man*? *A large, old, white, marble fountain*, or *a marble, white, old, large, fountain*? In the last case, the adjective denoting material should stand next to the noun, then that denoting color, then that denoting age; such as express ordinary qualities should precede:—

(size, appearance, etc.) (age) (color) (material) NOUN.

If one of several adjectives unites with the noun more closely than the rest to form a complex idea, it must stand nearest to the noun.

Which sounds better, *a rich and well-cultivated soil* or *a well-cultivated and rich soil*? *An unhealthy, most disagreeable, and moist climate*, or *a moist, unhealthy, and most disagreeable climate*? The shortest adjective should stand first.

Adjectives expressing ordinary qualities, relating to the same noun, are generally arranged according to their length—the shortest first.

Periods, interrogation-points, exclamation-points, etc., are called **Punctuation-points**. Inserting these points is called **Punctuating**.

How do you punctuate a sentence expressing a statement—a question—an exclamation—a command? How do you punctuate a series of adjectives used with the same noun?

EXERCISE.

Express the following groups of sentences, each in one sentence, using ADJECTIVES properly arranged:—

1. Let your conversation be entertaining. Let it be instructive. Let it be pure. Let it be truthful.

2. Youth is improvident. Youth is happy. Youth is unsuspicious. Youth is thoughtless.

3. Old age is calculating. Old age is querulous. It is full of distrust. It is fond of self.

4. A small beautiful summer-house has been erected on the pond. This summer-house is built of wood; it is white.

5. The Academy was a large building. It was handsomely-situated. It had three stories. It had been recently erected. It was built of brick.

6. We always like to meet with frank young men. We like to meet with young men of energy (*energetic*) and enterprise (*enterprising*). We like to meet with young men of good hearts and noble minds. We like to meet with young men of even tempers.

7. When Columbus first landed on San Salvador, he found it occupied by a hospitable race. This race was not civilized. They were of the color of copper. They had simple minds. They did not entertain suspicion.

8. The Rhine is a more useful river than the Rhone. It is much more picturesque than the Rhone. The Rhone is shorter than the Rhine.

9. Of all animals, the elephant is the most powerful. The elephant is also the largest of animals, and has the most intelligence and sagacity.

Write six sentences, each containing one of the nouns that follow, modified by the adjectives given with it, properly arranged:—

1. HOUSE: brown-stone, four-story, well-built, new.
2. SCHOOL: well-disciplined, orderly, large, public.
3. MILL: wooden, dilapidated, old, silent, moss-covered.
4. ROSES: June, French, fragrant, twenty, variegated.
5. LADIES: beautiful, graceful, amiable, young, modest.
6. WINTER: most trying, coldest, most changeable, dreariest, dullest, most disagreeable.



LESSON XL.

MY LADY AND HER ATTENDANTS.

There is a very useful lady whom we often meet; we should find it hard to get along without her. You may not know her name; but she can tell you the name of everybody.

When she goes out, she often has an attendant, who keeps close to her, generally walking before, but sometimes coming after her. This attendant tells every one she meets something about her mistress, and at times perhaps she talks rather too loud. She is very fond of comparing her lady with other people.

Not unfrequently my lady is accompanied by two, three, or more of such attendants, all telling different things about her. Some of them are very proper persons—capital waiting-maids. She is then careful to place the one she is most intimate with nearest to herself; but, if she is on equal terms with all, she places the shortest first and the tallest last. So my lady and her train are in everybody's mouth.

Can you guess my riddle? What is my lady's name? What are her attendants called?



Copy the above story. Write *n.* over each noun, *p.* over each pronoun, *a.* over each adjective.

In the first paragraph, do you see this mark (;)? How often is it used? It is called the **Semicolon**, and i

used to separate the main divisions of sentences, which have distinct subjects.

What are the two main divisions of the first sentence of the story? What is the subject of each? How are they separated? Mention the two main divisions of the second sentence. What is the subject of each? How are they separated? Where do you next find the semicolon used? What does it there separate?

EXERCISE.

Write a Composition on THE ADJECTIVE, telling all you know about it; be sure that your sentences affirm something. (You may tell what it is—what it goes with—what it may express—kinds—how to tell a proper, and how a compound, adjective—how compared—what the different degrees denote—where an adjective stands in a sentence—its usefulness.)

Exchange compositions; correct one another's, marking errors of every kind.



LESSON XLI.

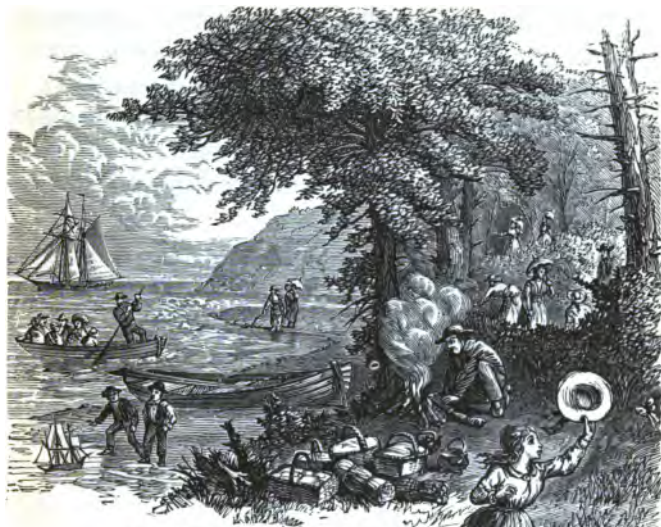
We have learned that a sentence may express a statement, a command, a question, or an exclamation.

Whatever it expresses, every sentence contains at least one word (sometimes several words taken together as one), that does the affirming. This is *the* word of the sentence—the VERB. *Verbum* is the Latin for *word*.

A Verb is a word or words used to affirm an action or a state.

In the following, select each verb (giving all the words, if it consists of more than one), and state whether it affirms an action or a state:—1. Children grow. 2. Might makes right. 3. David slew Goliath. 4. Cold was the blast. 5. Brazil was discovered by Cabral. 6. Washington might have been a king, if he had wished. 7. Look not upon the wine when it is red. 8. What a striking lesson does the career of Napoleon teach!

To sleep—to dream—is this the end of life?



THE PICNIC-PARTY.

What are they all doing?

Two ladies — (*are picking flowers*).

One of the ladies —.

The man with the oar —.

One of the boys —; the other —.

The man in the woods —.

The little girl —.



The above, as given, were not sentences. You made sentences out of them how? Among the words thus inserted each time, was a what? Underline the verbs inserted. **Every sentence must contain a Verb.**

Did the verbs you used above affirm actions or states? Insert in the following, verbs that will affirm a state:—

The river — smooth. Shawls and baskets — on the ground.

The verb affirms an action or a state *about something*. This something is called the **Subject** of the verb.

"Two ladies are walking on the shore." *Are walking* is a verb; it affirms that the *ladies* are doing something. *Ladies* is the subject of the verb *are walking*.

The subject may be found by asking a question with *who* or *what* before the verb; the answer to the question is the subject. Thus: "Who are walking?" *Ladies* are walking—*ladies* is the subject.

Mention the subjects in the sentences you completed under the engraving? How does the subject generally stand, as regards its verb?

Look at Sentence 4, near the bottom of page 60. Mention the verb in that sentence. Mention the subject. Which stands first?

What is the first verb in Sentence 7? What is the subject of the verb *look*? You can not find any. It is *thou* understood. ("Look not *who*?" Look not *thou* upon the wine when it is red.) Remember that the subject of a verb expressing a command is often left out, or as we say *understood*. It is generally *thou*, *you*, or *ye*.

EXERCISE.

Select the subjects in Sentences 1—9, at the bottom of page 60.

Write in separate lists the verbs, and their subjects, as they occur in the story on page 59.

Subjects are given below. Supply with each all the appropriate verbs you can, so as to make sentences. (Thus:—Boys and girls eat, drink, play, study, work, sing, talk, whisper, laugh, run, are petted, are kissed, will be caressed, may be spoiled, etc.)

Boys and girls —.	The moon —.	Birds —.
Newspapers —.	Horses —.	Doctors —.
A vessel —.	Water —.	We —.

Verbs are given below. Supply with each all the appropriate subjects you can think of, so as to make sentences. (Thus:—Ducks, geese, fish, trout, boys, men, children, dogs, swans, frogs, eels, turtles, snakes, I, etc., can swim.)

— can swim.	— must die.	— frolic.
— are eaten.	— are raised.	— fly.
— is studied.	— are read.	— have been built.

LESSON XLII.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Rome was on the Tiber. | 5. He sleeps. |
| 2. Rome conquered. | 6. He loves. |
| 3. Rome conquered Carthage. | 7. He loves her. |
| 4. Carthage was conquered by Rome. | 8. She is loved by him. |

Write the above sentences. From them we may learn several things:—

1. Verbs may have pronouns, as well as nouns, for their subjects. Which sentences above show this?

2. The subject may be represented as existing, or being in a certain state. Which sentences show this?

3. The subject may be represented as acting, without reference to any object. Which sentences show this?

4. The subject may be represented as acting on some person or thing. Which sentences show this?

The person or thing acted on by the subject is the **Object**. Name the object in Sentence 3; in Sentence 7.

In Sentence 3, how are you able to distinguish the object from the subject? In Sentence 7, what enables you to distinguish the object from the subject? If the object stood first—*her he loves*—would there be any difficulty in distinguishing them? Why not?

5. By altering the form of the verb, and using *by*, subject and object may be interchanged without any change of meaning. That is, the new subject (which before was the object) may be represented as acted upon by the actor (which before was the subject).

We thus have two equivalent forms of expression:—

Rome conquered Carthage. = Carthage was conquered by Rome.

Did Rome conquer Carthage? = Was Carthage conquered by Rome?

As we have learned, some pronouns appear in different forms when used as subject and object. We must, therefore, be able readily to distinguish subject from object, and must use the proper pronoun accordingly.

What is the objective form of *I* (see page 45)? Of *we*? Of *thou*? Of *she*? Of *they*? Of *who*? Of *he*? Write the following:—

1. It is I. 3. Who was she? 5. I knew it to be him.
2. It struck me. 4. Whom did it strike? 6. What said she?

Observe that verbs which denote existence merely—*am, is, are, was, were, will be*, etc.—can have no object. A pronoun following such a verb must be in the subjective form, if a subject precedes the verb—in the objective form, if an object precedes it. Give examples from the sentences just written.

The usual arrangement is SUBJECT VERB OBJECT.

In questions it may be OBJECT VERB SUBJECT.

Give examples from the sentences just written.

The parts of a verb may be separated by some other word. Which sentence just written furnishes an example?

EXERCISE.

I. *Supply with the following all the appropriate objects you can think of, so as to make sentences.* (Thus:—Horses draw carts, wagons, carriages, gigs, cars, stages, coaches, loads, travellers, us, etc.)

1. Horses draw —. 2. From the top of the mountain you can see —. 3. Learned men have written —. 4. New York contains —. 5. Carpenters are constantly making —. 6. Hotels use — in great quantities. 7. Will you get me some —? 8. Ships carry —. 9. Merchants sell —.

II. *Write equivalent sentences (see models near the bottom of page 63), underlining the subjects:—*

Napoleon invaded Russia. Has Congress admitted New Mexico as a state? The trade-winds waft ships quickly across the ocean. Alaska was bought from Russia by the United States. We might have avoided these mistakes. The southern shores of Europe are washed by the Mediterranean. How terribly Napoleon III. was beaten by the Prussians! They have accomplished wonders. All things were made by him.

III. *Complete the following*:—It is (*she* or *her*?). I knew it to be (*him* or *he*?). I felt sure that it was (*them* or *they*?). (*Whom* or *who*?) was she? (*Whom* or *who*?) did you mean? (*Whom* or *who*?) did you say had arrived? (*Who* or *whom*?) did you tell me to entertain? (*Who* or *whom*?) do men say that I am? It was (*they* or *them*?) that called. It was (*us* or *we*?) he meant.

IV. *Write a composition about A PICNIC-PARTY, drawing your ideas from the picture on page 61.* (Describe the place—the party—what the grown folks did—how the children amused themselves—what they had to eat—what they found in the woods—how wet they got. You know it always rains at picnics.)



LESSON XLIII.

HELP.	<i>To help.</i>	They <i>helped</i> .	The boys <i>might help</i> .
	<i>Helping.</i>	I <i>will help</i> .	She <i>may have been helped</i> .
	He <i>helps</i> .	You <i>have helped</i> .	<i>Could he have been helped?</i>

Write the above. Underline the verb in each. What is the simplest form of the verb that you have written? This simplest form is called the **Verb-Root**.

From the verb-root **HELP** come various longer forms, just as from the root of a rose-bush spring different stems with longer or shorter branches.

How is the verb *helped* formed from the root **HELP**? How is the verb *will help* formed from the root? How is the verb *may have been helped* formed from the root? In what three ways, then, may verbs be formed from a verb-root?

Form some verbs from the roots *select—destroy—dress*. What is the root of *must have passed—would have been appointed—blushing*?

To help. How is this verb formed from the root? Can it affirm any thing of a subject? As *to help* can not be limited to a subject, it is said to be in the **Infinitive**.

To unites with a verb-root, to form a verb in the **Infinitive**; as, to study, to play.

The infinitive may be used, in stead of a noun, as the subject of a verb; as, "*To study* is not unpleasant."

Or it may be used after an adjective or a noun, in sentences beginning with *it is*; as, "It is not unpleasant *to study*." "It is our duty *to study*."

We thus have three equivalent forms of expression:—

1. Studying is not unpleasant.
2. To study is not unpleasant.
3. It is not unpleasant to study.

The infinitive may also be used to limit the meaning of some other word, particularly a verb; as, "Try *to* (not *and*) *improve*." "We were about *to start*."

Do not use *for to* with the root, to form the infinitive. "Titus was sent *to subdue* the Jews,"—not *for to subdue* the Jews.

Do not separate *to* from the root by an intervening word. "We should strive *faithfully to perform* our duty," or "*to perform* our duty *faithfully*,"—not *to faithfully perform* our duty.

Just hear it *rain*.

They were let *go*.

We will make her *tell*.

You dare not *do* it.

Bid him *enter*.

I see it *crack*, and feel it *shake*.

Rain, tell, enter, etc., limiting the meaning of the verbs that precede them, are in the infinitive, yet lack the sign of the infinitive—*to*. This is because after certain verbs this sign is omitted.

Omit *to*, the sign of the infinitive, after *hear, make, bid, let, dare* (meaning *venture*), *see*, and *feel*.

EXERCISE

Write two equivalent sentences for each of the following, consulting forms 1, 2, 3, near the top of the page. Underline the infinitives in the sentences written:—1. Sitting in the house all day is not healthy. 2. To repeat slanders about our neighbors is not the kindest thing in the world. 3. It is always improving to the mind to travel in

foreign countries. 4. It was indeed a stupendous undertaking to connect ocean with ocean by an iron road. 5. Describing one's emotions on first beholding Niagara is a difficult task.

Write six sentences containing infinitives.

Correct errors :—1. Young men, on leaving college, often travel for to see something of the world. 2. How great an accomplishment it is to gracefully enter a room! 3. Few travellers dare to ascend Mount Blanc. 4. Is it not better to openly censure a person than to secretly cast reflections on him?

5. Cats will travel miles, for to get back to their old homes. 6. Self-respect should make men to give up their vile habits. 7. We can see these causes to operate every day. 8. They bid me to go to Paris, and to thence proceed as quickly as possible to London. 9. Some men talk just for to display their own learning.



LESSON XLIV.

They crossed the river and marched rapidly on.

Crossing the river, they marched rapidly on.

Is there any difference of meaning in these two sentences? Which *asserts* that the crossing took place? Which merely *assumes* or *implies* that it took place? This difference comes from using *crossed* in the first sentence and *crossing* in the second. *Crossing* is called a **Participle**.

A Participle is a form of the verb that qualifies or limits the meaning of a noun or pronoun, by assuming some action or state in connection with it.

Two participles may generally be formed by adding **ing** and **ed** to the verb-root; as, respect, *respecting*, *respected*.

Form two participles from *heat*—*hinder*—*benefit*. What is the verb-root of *thundering*—*esteemed*—*accepting*?

What changes, did we find, must be made in certain adjectives, when *er* and *est* are added to form the comparative and superlative (p. 51)? Similar changes are

made in certain verb-roots when participles are formed.—
Write the following :—

Participles of	PILE	— <i>pil</i> ing,	<i>pil</i> ed.
“	“ STUN	— <i>stunn</i> ing,	<i>stunn</i> ed.
“	“ REFER	— <i>referr</i> ing,	<i>referr</i> ed.
“	“ HURRY	— <i>hurry</i> ing,	<i>hurri</i> ed.
But	{ LOAN	— loan ing,	loan ed.
	{ APPLAUD	— applaud ing,	applaud ed.
	{ OFFER	— offer ing,	offer ed.
	{ EMPLOY	— employ ing,	employ ed.

With what letter does *pile* end (refer to what you have just written)?
What change is made in *pile*, when *ing* and *ed* are added?

Does *stun* end with a vowel or a consonant? By how many vowels is this final consonant (*n*) preceded? What change is made in *stun*, when *ing* and *ed* are added? Looking in the second list, do you find the final *n* of *loan* doubled, when its participles are formed? Why not—is the final consonant of *loan* preceded by one vowel or more?

Does *refer* end with a vowel or a consonant? By how many vowels is this final consonant (*r*) preceded? Which syllable of *refer* receives the ACCENT, or stress of the voice? What change is made in *refer*, when *ing* and *ed* are added? Do you find the final consonant of *applaud* and *offer* doubled in the second list, when their participles are formed? Why not—how many vowels precede the final consonant of *applaud*? Which syllable of *offer* is accented?

With what letter does *hurry* end? Is the final *y* preceded by a vowel or a consonant? What change is made in *hurry*, when *ing* is added? What change is made in *hurry*, when *ed* is added? Do you find the final *y* of *employ* changed to *i*, when *ed* is added? Why not—is the final *y* of *employ* preceded by a vowel or a consonant?

In adding *ing* and *ed*, to form participles,

1. Final *e* of the verb-root is rejected; as, —.*
2. In roots of one syllable, and those of more than one if accented on the last syllable, a final consonant preceded by but one vowel is doubled; as, —.
3. Final *y*, if preceded by a consonant, is changed to

* Select an example of the rule each time from the above list.

i when *ed* is added, but remains unchanged when *ing* is added; as, —.

But retain final *e*, if preceded by *e* or *o*, when *ing* is added; as, *fee, feeling; hoe, hoeing*.

Never double *x*; *mix, mixing, mixed*.

EXERCISE.

Write the infinitive and two participles of hate; woo; defraud; disagree; fit; array; bare; vex; omit; attract; survey; ply; pander; decoy; drown; fix; pur; proclaim; shoe; shy; plunder.

*Change to equivalent sentences containing participles, according to the example at the commencement of this Lesson:—*1. Washington left his camp-fires burning, and silently withdrew his men. 2. If we write often, we shall soon learn to write well. (*Commence with by and a participle.*) 3. When we study a subject diligently, we are sure to master it in the end. 4. Columbus knew that an eclipse of the moon was about to take place, and gathered the natives around him. 5. The good man dies, and is loved and esteemed by all that knew him. 6. The wicked flee when no man pursueth, for they are harassed by a guilty conscience.

LESSON XLV.

“Leaving his camp-fires burning, Washington withdrew his men.”

What is the first participle in this sentence? Write the part of the sentence which is made up of *leaving* and the words dependent on it—

Leaving his camp-fires burning.

Such a division of a sentence is called a **Clause**; and as this clause contains a participle, it is called a **Participial Clause**.

A Clause is part of a sentence containing a verb, but not expressing a complete thought.

A Participial Clause is a clause containing a participle.

In the example at the commencement of the Lesson, by what point is the participial clause set off? Might the participial clause have been introduced elsewhere—for instance, “Washington, leaving his camp-fires by

ing, withdrew his men"? How do you find the participial clause punctuated in this case?

A participial clause is generally set off from the rest of the sentence with the comma.

But when it modifies the *object* of a verb, the connection is often too close to admit of a comma; as, "We saw a torrent *rushing headlong through the valley*."

A participial clause modifying the subject of a verb, particularly if long, generally precedes the subject. It should always do so, when the subject is a pronoun. "*Riding along*, he suddenly beheld the castle;" not, "*He, riding along*, suddenly beheld the castle."

"While standing on deck, the most beautiful landscapes passed in succession before our eyes." Here the participial clause modifies *landscapes*, the subject of the verb that follows; but it was *we* that stood on deck, not the *landscapes*. We must, therefore, make *we* the subject: "While standing on deck, we beheld a succession of the most beautiful landscapes." Or we may substitute *we* and a verb for the participle: "While we were standing on deck, the most beautiful landscapes," etc.

See that a participial clause is used with the noun or pronoun it is intended to modify.

"Cæsar's crossing the Rubicon was the cause of war." What was the cause of war? *Crossing the Rubicon*. Whose crossing the Rubicon? *Cæsar's*. Here in stead of the participle's modifying the noun, the noun is made to modify the participle, and the noun is in the possessive form. A pronoun used under like circumstances would also have to be in the possessive form. "*His* crossing the Rubicon was the cause of war."

A noun or pronoun used to modify a participle must be in the possessive form.

EXERCISE.

Correct errors:—1. Kniting, weaveing, sawing, spliting, grind-ing, printting, and doing a hundred other necessary things, we find in steam one of our most useful servants. 2. Shuned and hateed by all, who now would envy Benedict Arnold? 3. No one can

count on fortunes always favoring him. 4. Napoleon insisting on too much was the source of unnumbered evils to France. 5. Nowadays we seldom hear of a man sacrificeing himself for others.

6. I, desireing to be of assistance, promptly offered my services. 7. By appliing ourselves diligently to business, success is almost sure to follow. 8. There was no time to lose, for they, seing their opportunity, at once tried to outflank us. 9. Though plyed with questions, no information could be got out of the witness. 10. You, remembering the golden rule, should overlook the wrongs you have suffered. 11. Propagateing his doctrines with the sword Mohammed soon widely extended his new religion.



LESSON XLVI.

Participial clauses sometimes enable us to express neatly and forcibly in one sentence what might otherwise require two or more sentences. Thus:—

The Romans were obliged to abandon their distant provinces.

They had enough to do to defend themselves against the barbarians.

These barbarians were now pressing upon them from the north.

Combined in one sentence:—Obliged to abandon their distant provinces, the Romans had enough to do to defend themselves against the barbarians, now pressing upon them from the north.

EXERCISE.

Form into one sentence each group given below, using participial clauses:—

1. The allies next laid siege to the strong fortress of Sevastopol. This was situated in the Crimea.

2. The moon revolves round the earth. The moon is carried with the earth round the sun.

3. Our prevailing system of notation was introduced into Europe by the Arabians. It was probably derived by them from the Hindoos. It was not generally adopted before the fourteenth century.

4. The hippopotamus is possessed of an enormous appetite. It has a stomach capable of holding five or six bushels of food. This animal is very destructive to the cultivated lands that lie in the neighborhood of its haunts.

5. Hippopotamuses are gregarious animals. They collect in herds of twenty or thirty. They make the air resound with their snorts, as they play together.

6. Our forefathers declared their independence of the mother-country. They staked their lives and fortunes on the issue of the war. This war was forced upon them by Great Britain.

Write twelve sentences appropriate to the engraving on page 6, containing participial clauses or infinitives ; as,

Frightened by the noise, the lambs scampered away.

These girls look as if they liked to ride on the hay.



LESSON XLVII.

From one verb-root we get many verbs, which differ in their manner of affirming, the time they express, etc. Thus, with verbs from the root CALL, we may affirm the act *positively*, as present, past, or future:—

I call. I do call.

I have called.

I shall call.

I am called.

I have been called.

I shall be called.

I is a pronoun, and no part of the verb. It is used with the verbs above, in order to make sentences. Which of the above verbs express present time? Which express past time? Which, future? Which affirm the act as performed by the subject?

Or we may affirm the act as possible, necessary, or obligatory ; as,

I may, can, must, might, could, would, should,	{	<i>call.</i> <i>have called.</i> <i>be called.</i> <i>have been called.</i>
--	---	--

Or we may affirm the act as a condition ; as,

If I be called, I will go. If I were called, I would go.

These different **Compound Forms** are made by combining the root *call*, or the participle *called*, with a number of little *helping* words—*be, have, do, shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, should*, etc.

Besides other forms, we thus get compound infinitive forms and compound participles, construed like the infinitive and participles already considered:—

He is said *to have called*.

Being called.

He is about *to be called*.

Having called.

He was *to have been called*.

Having been called.

“He having arrived, we were ready for the journey.” Here *he* is neither subject nor object, but is used with the participle *having arrived*, independently of other words in the sentence, and is in the subjective form. Observe that the participial clause is set off with the comma.

A pronoun used independently in a participial clause must be in the subjective form.

EXERCISE.

Complete by supplying compound infinitive forms:—1. The Icelanders are said — the mainland of America before Columbus. 2. It is not agreeable —. 3. It would have been no more than right for America — Columbia. 4. — is the lot of many good men. 5. Dr. Jones was —, but he was defeated by a rival candidate. 6. Try — for your virtues.

Correct errors:—1. To constantly be scolded for what one can not help, is intolerable. 2. Many go to Milan, for to be trained in music. 3. He having been once deceived is likely to be suspicious hereafter. 4. The colonial cause was saved by Washington being appointed to the chief command. 5. Having been carried past our station, the cars unfortunately did not stop for the next ten miles. 6. The decree was enforced, in spite of its having been illegally obtained. 7. (*They or them?*) having charged up the hill, the battle became general. 8. Him having been removed, affairs were more discreetly managed.

Combine in one sentence, with the aid of participial clauses, as in the last Lesson:—

1. The Czar next proceeded to England. He had obtained in Holland such knowledge of the art of ship-building as he desired. (Commence with *Having obtained in Holland*, etc.)

2. We have been recognized as the owners. The rents are, therefore, payable to us.

3. The locomotive was brought into a practical form by Stephenson. Railroads soon thereafter came to be the great instruments of progress.

4. The heavy rain ceased. The sun burst forth from behind the clouds in all his glory. A beautiful bow spanned the firmament.

5. The Cape of Good Hope was doubled by Vasco da Gama. Other Portuguese navigators followed up the discovery. A lucrative trade with the East Indies was thus soon established.



LESSON XLVIII.

If I *be* loved.

I *have* loved.

I *do* love.

If I *be* happy.

I *have* a dollar.

I *do* my duty.

Auxiliary means *helping*; and the little verbs which *help* to form compound verbs are called **Auxiliaries**.

Some of the auxiliaries—**BE**, **HAVE**, and **DO**—are used also as principal verbs. Look at the examples at the commencement of the Lesson, and tell in which sentences *be*, *have*, and *do*, are used as auxiliaries. Which verbs in those examples have objects?

Those forms of the verb which affirm an action as now taking place, or a state as now existing, are called **Present**. The participle in *ing*—*being*, *having*, *doing*—is the Present Participle.

Let us look at the Present of the verbs **BE**, **HAVE**, and **DO**. The Present forms of **BE** are quite irregular, and change in some cases according to the subject, as may be seen from the following examples:—

Singular Forms.—I *am* now happy. Thou *art* pale. He *is* well; she *is* better; it *is* best; John *is* sad.

Plural Form.—We *are* here; you *are* merry; they *are* noisy; the fields *are* green.

What form do you find used with *I*? With *thou*? With *he*, *she*, *it*, or a singular noun? What is the only form for all plural subjects? Learn these forms, as presented below with the pronouns:—

SINGULAR. I *am*.

Thou *art*.

He, she, it—every singular noun—*is*.

PLURAL. We, you, they—all plural nouns—*are*.

Learn, in like manner, the present of HAVE:—

SINGULAR. I *have*.

Thou *hast*.

He, she, it—every singular noun—*has* (or *hath**).

PLURAL. We, you, they—all plural nouns—*have*.

Learn, in like manner, the present of DO:—

SINGULAR. I *do*.

Thou *dost*.

He, she, it—every singular noun—*does* (or *doth**).

PLURAL. We, you, they—all plural nouns—*do*.

Who, *which*, and *that*, used as subjects, require the same form of the verb as the pronoun or noun for which they stand: *I who am*; *thou that art*; *gold which is*.

You and I = we. He and I = we. You and he = you.

EXERCISE.

Supply the proper part of BE, HAVE, or DO:—1. I — sure that all men sometimes — wrong. 2. A poet says, “Whatever —, is right.” 3. Thou — a shadow on thy brow. 4. — thou a friend? I —. 5. Lives there a man who — not sin? 6. Whales — less numerous than they were. 7. He — (*solemn form*) not listened; he — (*solemn form*) not hear.

* The less common form, used in solemn and poetic style,

8. We, who — the chief sufferers, — come to complain. 9. It is thou that — the aggressor. 10. They who — right — their reward. 11. You and I, who — been waiting so long, will now take our turn. 12. You and he — not answer. 13. He and I — going. 14. Even I, who — surrounded by comforts, know what sorrow —. 15. The foliage — fresh, the fields — charming.



LESSON XLIX.

I *was* loved.

I *had* friends.

I *did* love.

I *was* happy.

We *had* sport.

We *did* right.

Here we have other forms from the verb-roots, BE, HAVE, and DO. In which of the above sentences is *was* used as an auxiliary? *Had*? *Did*? Which of these verbs have objects? Do they affirm an act as *now* taking place, or a state as *now* existing?

Forms of the verb which affirm that an act took place or a state existed, are called **Past**. *Was*, *had*, and *did*, are Past forms of the verbs BE, HAVE, and DO. The participle in *ed* is the Past Participle.

Was is used with all singular subjects except *thou*. Plural subjects require *were*. Thus:—

SINGULAR. I, he, she, it—every singular noun—*was*.

Thou *wast*. Thou who *wast*.

PLURAL. We, you, they—all plural nouns—*were*.

Had is used with all subjects, singular or plural, except *thou*. *Thou* requires *hadst*. Thus:—

I, he, she, it, we, you, they—all nouns—*had*.

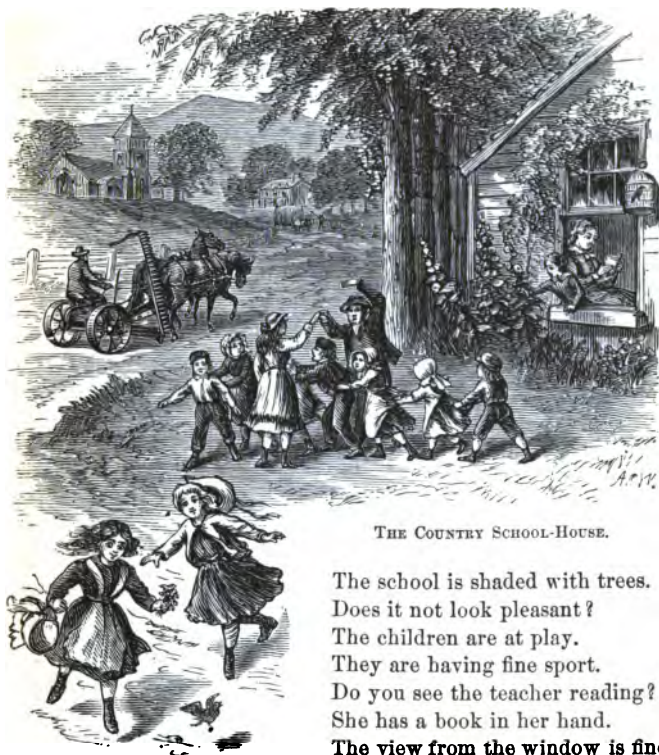
Thou *hadst*. Thou who *hadst*.

Did is used with all subjects, singular or plural, except *thou*. *Thou* requires *didst*. Thus:—

I, he, she, it, we, you, they—all nouns—*did*.

Thou *didst*. Thou who *didst*.

The Past Participles of BE, HAVE, and DO, are quite regular. BE makes *been*; HAVE, *had*; DO, *done*.



THE COUNTRY SCHOOL-HOUSE.

The school is shaded with trees.
 Does it not look pleasant?
 The children are at play.
 They are having fine sport.
 Do you see the teacher reading?
 She has a book in her hand.

The view from the window is fine.

A man is driving a mowing-machine along the road.

Two of the girls have their eyes on a young robin.

The robin does not fly very far at a time.

Do not those stately maples make a charming shade?

Write the above sentences, placing v. over each verb (or part of a compound verb), and s. over each subject.

The verbs in the above sentences are Present. Change them to the corresponding Past forms:—"The school-house was shaded with trees," etc.

From the engraving, write six sentences containing Present forms of the verb. Write six containing Past forms.

LESSON L.

Verbs, as we have seen, may affirm an action or state as present or past. They may also affirm what is about to be or take place. Such forms of the verb are called **Future**; and in these the auxiliaries *will* and *shall* appear. Thus:—

I shall go to-morrow. He will start immediately. We shall see. They will return. You will not leave me.

But, *Thou will not leave me. Thou shalt not kill.*

Will and *shall* change to *wilt* and *shalt* when *thou* is the subject, but remain unchanged for other subjects.

The remaining auxiliaries, also, change only when *thou* is the subject. But *thou* is not used in ordinary discourse. Except in solemn or poetical style, we use *you*, whether addressing one person or more; these auxiliaries, therefore, are very seldom changed.

The forms of the remaining auxiliaries required with *thou*, in solemn or poetical style, end in *st*:—

MUST—*thou must* (no change).

MIGHT —*thou mightst* (*mightest*).

HAD —*thou hadst*.

COULD —*thou couldst* (*couldest*).

CAN —*thou canst*.

WOULD—*thou wouldst* (*wouldest*).

MAY —*thou mayst* (or *mayest*).

SHOULD—*thou shouldst* (*shouldest*).

Write after *Thou* all the auxiliaries you can think of (fifteen, if possible), in the proper form:—*Thou art, wast, etc.*

Will and *shall* may not be used at pleasure, the one for the other. To express simply what is about to take place, *shall* is used with *I* and *we*; *will* is used with all other subjects.

I shall start next week. We shall be back to-morrow. But, He will start next week. The boys will be back to-morrow.

Will used with *I* or *we*, and *shall* with other subjects, ly determination as well as futurity.

"I *will* go,"—that is, I have determined to go. "We *will* speak,"—it is our determination to speak. "He *shall* obey,"—"They *shall* be punished,"—such is my determination. Did the Frenchman who cried in terror, "I will drown, nobody shall save me!" express what he intended? What should he have said?

EXERCISE.

Change the verbs in the following sentences, so as to make what is affirmed Future. Thus:—1. The children will be tired of playing.

1. The children are tired of playing. 2. The flowers bloomed sweetly by the window of the school-house. 3. The bird escaped from the cage near the window. 4. Good-natured children play pleasantly together. 5. When recess is over, they go back to their lessons. 6. I asked the children to let me join them at play. 7. Sue helped Laura to catch the robin.

Write six sentences containing Future forms of the verb; let the engraving on page 77 suggest the thoughts.

Complete the following by inserting auxiliaries:—1. Columbus thought that he — reach the East Indies by sailing westward. 2. You — prepare your lesson, if you — study. 3. Close the doors; nobody — leave the room. 4. We — vote, if the polls are open. 5. We — vote in spite of you. 6. They — go, if they can. 7. You — have been killed. 8. She — not be allowed to go home alone.



LESSON LI.

Review the present of *be*, *have*, and *do* (page 75).

Review the past forms of these verbs—*was*, *had*, and *did* (page 76).

Having learned the changes required in the auxiliaries for different subjects, we are now prepared to consider all the forms of the verb.

Let us take the verb **Rule** as an example, and consider first the forms that represent the subject as acting.

PRESENT FORMS.—*I rule; we rule; you rule; they rule.*

But, *He rules; she rules; it rules; the king rules.*

In prayer or poetry, *Thou rulest; the Lord ruleth.*

For all singular subjects other than *I*, the common form is **rules**; for *I*, and all plural subjects, **rule**.

PAST FORMS.—*I, he, she, we, you, they, ruled. The king ruled; kings ruled.*

In prayer or poetry, *Thou ruledst.*

For all subjects, the common form is **ruled**.

COMPOUND FORMS.—*Have ruled.*

I, we, you, they, kings, have ruled.

He, she, the king, has ruled.

In prayer or poetry, *Thou hast ruled, he hath ruled.*

For all singular subjects other than *I*, the common form is **has ruled**; for *I* and all plural subjects, **have ruled**.

The other compound forms, given below, are unchanged except with *thou*, which is rarely used in ordinary style. The forms with *thou* were given on page 78.

Had ruled.

Will rule.

Shall rule.

May rule.

Can rule.

Must rule.

Might rule.

Could rule.

Would rule.

Should rule.

Will have ruled.

Shall have ruled.

May have ruled.

Can have ruled.

Must have ruled.

Might have ruled.

Could have ruled.

Would have ruled.

Should have ruled.

INFINITIVES.—(No change.) *To rule. To have ruled.*

PARTICIPLES.—(No change.) *Ruling. Having ruled.*

EXERCISE.

Write the parts of the verb LOVE, following those of RULE as given above:—

First present all the forms used with I:—

I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I will love, etc.

Then the forms used with he :—

He loves, he loved, he has loved, he had loved, etc.

Then the forms used with we :—

We love, we loved, we have loved, we had loved, etc.

Then the forms used with you :—

You love, you loved, you have loved, you had loved, etc.

Then the forms used with they :—

They love, they loved, they have loved, they had loved, etc.

Then the forms used with thou, in solemn style :—

Thou lovest, thou lovedst, thou hast loved, etc.



LESSON LII.

We shall now take up the verb **BE**. The present was given on page 75 ; the past, on page 76. Repeat them.

When *if* or *though* precedes the present and past, we sometimes have *be* and *were*, used without change for different subjects: if I *be*, if thou *be*, if he *be*, if we *be* ; though I *were*, though thou *were*, though he *were*, etc.

Be is the form used in commands: *be* (thou, you).

The participles of **BE** are *being*, *been*. By combining the irregular participle *been* with the different auxiliaries, as in the case of **RULE**, we get the compound forms of **BE** :

Have been, had been, will be, shall be, may be, can be, etc.

INFINITIVES.—To be. To have been.

BE, as we have seen, is both a principal verb and an auxiliary. By combining it in its various parts with the participle **RULED**, we get those forms of the verb **RULE** that represent the subject as acted upon. Thus :—

Am ruled.	Will be ruled.	Must be ruled.
Was ruled.	Shall be ruled.	Might be ruled.
Have been ruled.	May be ruled.	Could be ruled.
Had been ruled.	Can be ruled.	Would be ruled.

Should be ruled.	Must have been ruled.
Will have been ruled.	Might have been ruled.
Shall have been ruled.	Could have been ruled.
May have been ruled.	Would have been ruled.
Can have been ruled.	Should have been ruled.
(If I, thou, etc.) be ruled.	(If I, thou, etc.) were ruled.

Be ruled (*in commands*).

INFINITIVES. To be ruled. To have been ruled.

PARTICIPLES. Ruled. Being ruled. Having been ruled.

He has been attacked, defeated, and driven back.

Not, He has been attacked, *has been* defeated, and *has been* driven back.

When similar forms of different verbs are used together, it is generally inelegant to repeat the auxiliary. Use the auxiliary with the first only.

EXERCISE.

Of the parts of the verb LOVE that represent the subject as acted upon, write the following:—

First the forms used with I:—

I am loved, I was loved, I have been loved, etc.

Then the forms used with he:—

He is loved, he was loved, he has been loved, etc.

*Correct the following:—*1. She might have been hurt, or *might* even *have been* killed. 2. I hope that I may be esteemed, may be respected, and may be loved, by all good people. 3. Having abdicated and having retired to a monastery, Charles V took a strange fancy to celebrate his own funeral. 4. Thou wilt not betray us! 5. I shall brave every danger, to accomplish this result. 6. Thou shalt not see the paling cheek. 7. Charles may succeed, if he *would* try; he might get the prize, if he *will* study.

For the following write equivalent sentences, in which the subject will be represented as the actor,—and underline the subject. Thus:—

1. Trajan added Dacia to the Roman Empire.

1. Dacia was added to the Roman Empire by Trajan. 2. Vaccination was first practised by Dr. Jenner. 3. The great West has

been wonderfully changed by railroads within a few years. 4. The name of Morse will be handed down by historians as one of the great geniuses of the age. 5. Geography, if properly presented, can be mastered by quite young students. 6. Could the world have been moved by Archimedes with a lever, if he had had a place to stand on?



LESSON LIII.

“James is working. He has been working since daylight.”

Mention the subjects of these sentences. Are they represented as acting or acted upon? What auxiliaries are used? With what participle are they combined?

When we say *James is working*, we bring out the idea clearly that the work is now *going on*. We can not properly use such a form in the case of every verb, for continuance is implied in the meaning of some verbs without any special form. It would not do to say *James is loving his family*, for continuance is sufficiently implied in the common form *loves*.

To denote continuance, some verbs make distinct forms, by combining the auxiliary BE in its different parts with the participle in ING. Thus:—

Am ruling, was ruling, have been ruling, etc. Supply the rest according to the forms at the bottom of page 81 and top of page 82.—Participle, *Having been ruling*.

The forms just given—*am ruling, was ruling*, etc.—represent the subject as acting; but nouns used as subjects with such forms are sometimes represented as acted upon. *The houses were building* means that the building was done to the houses, that they were in course of erection.

You do not try. I do try.

You did not try. I did try.

Do the first two of these sentences imply present or past time? The last two? What are the auxiliaries used?

In ordinary language, the auxiliary *do* is used with *not* and the verb-root as a present "negative form," and *did* as a past "negative form".

Without *not*, these forms with *do* and *did* are "emphatic,"—used when it is desired to make a specially strong statement. See examples above.

Do is also used in commands or emphatic requests.
Do go; do not speak.

Remember the emphatic forms for different subjects :

I—and all plural subjects—*do rule.*

He, she, it—every singular noun—*does rule.*

Thou *dost rule.*

I, he, she, it—all plural subjects—*did rule.*

Thou *didst rule.*

EXERCISE.

Of the forms of the verb EAT which denote continued action, write the parts used with all plural nouns and pronouns, making we, you, they, men, in turn the subject :—

We are eating, you were eating, they have been eating, men had been eating, we will be eating, etc.

*Change to the corresponding emphatic and negative forms :—*I tried (*did try, did not try*). He walks (*does walk, does not walk*). They travelled. You complain. We were entering. I think. People talked. Speak. They are working hard.

*Change the verbs to the corresponding forms that denote continued action :—*I dreamed (*was dreaming*). He will preach. The girls must have played. I do not deceive you. We had discussed the point. You might have rolled in wealth. The wind has roared all day. They should have studied.

Write a Composition on THE SCHOOL-HOUSE (see engraving, page 77). (Describe it—the country around—the teacher—the studies—the plays at recess. Tell about your own school—vacations—what you go to school for—how school may be made pleasant or unpleasant—whether it is a good thing to have schools.)

LESSON LIV.

Do I trouble you ?

Must you leave ?

Did he answer correctly ?

Should she not attend ?

Have I been dreaming ?

Could he not have written ?

Write the above sentences. What mark follows each ? What does each express ? What two words would answer these questions ? Underline the auxiliaries. With what kind of word does each sentence commence ? If we place this auxiliary after the subject (*I do trouble you—you must leave*), what will each sentence express, in stead of a question ?

A question that can be answered by *yes* or *no* is often formed by commencing a sentence with an auxiliary.

Each auxiliary has its own significance, and must be used accordingly.

Do not interchange *MAY* and *CAN*. *May* implies permission ; *can*, ability. A scholar, asking to be dismissed, should say, "*May* (not *can*) I go ?"

Observe the same distinction in using *WOULD* and *SHOULD* after a verb expressing past time, as in using *will* and *shall* (page 78). That is,

To express simple futurity, use *should* with *I* and *we*, —*would* with all other subjects ; as, "I thought we *should* go." "We supposed it *would* rain."

To express determination, use *would* with *I* and *we*, —*should* with all other subjects ; as, "We resolved that we *would* stay." "I told you she *should* wait."

Auxiliaries are used together in certain connections.

Thus we say, "I *will* go, if I *can*."

But, "I *would* go, if I *could*."

"I *have* arranged it so that you *may* go."

But, "I *had* arranged it so that you *might* go."

"If you *will* remain, I *may* go."

But, "If you *would* remain, I *might* go."

"If you *have* determined to stay, I *can* go."

The auxiliary HAVE (and so, of course, *has* and *has*) implies past time connected with the present, and must not be used to express past time simply.

"Saratoga *has been* long celebrated for its mineral waters;" not *was long celebrated*, as its celebrity extends up to the present time. "*It was* the scene of important events in the Revolution;" not *has been the scene*, as past time simply is to be expressed.

In combining two or more auxiliaries with a participle or verb-root, see that they can all be properly used with it.

"She has walked as far as you can." As you can what? *Can walked*, for the participle previously used must be supplied. Correct by inserting the verb-root, required with *can*: "She has walked as far as you can walk."

EXERCISE.

Referring to the engraving on page 87, write twelve appropriate sentences, expressing questions that can be answered by yes or no. Thus:—"Will he catch his brother?"

Change the statements in the last paragraph of the Exercise under Lesson LII., page 82, to questions, commencing the sentences with auxiliaries. Thus:—"Was Dacia added," etc.

*Correct errors:—*1. "You can go," said the teacher. 2. They would not come unto me, that they may receive my blessing. 3. I thought it likely I would see you. 4. I heard that you should leave on Monday. 5. Pompeii has been destroyed, 79 A.D., by an eruption of Vesuvius. 6. There they have been all last week. 7. I resolved to work harder than I had ever before.

8. Can you answer as many questions as I have? 9. Did they not cross the border, and marched rapidly to the north? 10. Botany has formerly been studied but little. 11. Steam was a very useful servant to man. 12. If she would intercede for me, he may grant the favor. 13. I fixed matters so that you may leave. 14. She might play, if she wishes. 15. Men may try, even if they can not always succeed. 16. I thought we would take passage on Celtic, which has arrived yesterday.

In the following sentences, relating to the picture, make the subjects plural, and such other changes as are required in consequence.
Thus:—1. In the fireplace logs are burning brightly.

1. In the fireplace a log is burning brightly.
2. The old andiron reminds us of times long past.
3. A shelf may be seen above the antique mantel-piece.
4. On the wall a handsome picture is hanging.
5. The hand of the blindfolded boy was extended.
6. The little girl was standing on tiptoe, watching her brother.
7. The chair has been removed out of the children's way.
8. A good boy always likes to play with his sisters.



BLIND-MAN'S-BUFF.

Write a Composition on BLIND-MAN'S-BUFF. (Tell how the game is played—what danger there is in it—how the players sometimes cheat. What does the above engraving represent? Describe the room—the fire—the mantel—the walls—the view from the window. How many children are there? What are they doing? Who is looking on? Whom do you think the boy will catch? Why? What kind of a family does it seem to be?)

LESSON LV.

Errors are more apt to be made in verbs than in any other words. Look at the following:—

- WRONG. 1. A large crop of peaches *are* expected in Delaware.
 2. Bell's "Travels in Mexico" *have* been widely read.
 3. He was one of those unfortunates that *is* always poor.

Write the above sentences; let us see why they are wrong.

What is the subject of Sentence 1? Is *crop* singular or plural? Is its verb, *are expected*, singular or plural? What, then, should the verb be changed to? Do not make a mistake in the verb, in consequence of its being separated from the subject by an intervening noun.

In Sentence 2, the subject is *Travels in Mexico*. This is *one* title—denoting *one* book—and the verb should be singular, though the noun *Travels* is plural. Correct the sentence.

In Sentence 3, the subject of *is* is the pronoun *that*. *That* stands for *unfortunates*, which is plural. Therefore the subject is plural, and the verb should be plural. Correct the sentence.

Be sure to use a singular form of the verb with a singular subject—a plural verb with a plural subject.

-
1. Honesty and energy lead to success.
 2. Courage, gentleness, and fidelity, are traits of the mastiff.
 3. To be slandered by the envious and persecuted by the wicked are common trials of the good.

Write the above sentences. Underline the subjects in Sentence 1. By what are they connected? Mention the verb; is it singular or plural?—Underline the subjects in Sentence 2. By what are they connected? ~~Mention~~ the verb; is it singular or plural?—In Sentence 3, we have two clauses for subjects; underline them. By what are they connected? Mention the verb in Sentence 3. Is it singular or plural?

Two or more singular subjects taken together (whether *and* connects them or is understood) require a plural verb.

One of the subjects thus taken together may be understood; as, "Smith's and Brown's house are alike,"—that is, Smith's *house* and Brown's house

When the two subjects denote but one person or thing, a singular verb is required; as, "The *attorney* and *counsellor* next door *does* a large business."

EXERCISE.

Combine in one sentence, making necessary changes in the verb, etc. Thus:—

The zebra is a native of Africa.

The giraffe is a native of Africa.

*Combined:—*The zebra and the giraffe *are natives* of Africa.

1. Butter is made from milk. Cheese is made from milk.

2. Gold is a precious metal. Silver is a precious metal.

3. Swearing is a repulsive and degrading sin. Lying is a repulsive and degrading sin. Stealing is a repulsive and degrading sin.

4. Corn does not thrive in cold climates. Cotton does not thrive in cold climates.

5. Mississippi has been and is a great cotton-raising state. Alabama has been and is a great cotton-raising state. Georgia has been and is a great cotton-raising state.

6. Washington was born in Virginia. Jefferson was born in Virginia. Madison was born in Virginia. Monroe was born in Virginia.

*Complete the following:—*1. He and I —. 2. The steamboat and the railroad —. 3. Faith, hope, and charity, —. 4. The lion and the tiger —. 5. Geography and history —. 6. Iron, copper, lead, and tin, —. 7. To relieve the poor and comfort the afflicted —.

*Complete the following, by supplying two or more singular subjects connected by and:—*1. — wait for no man. 2. As the sun rose, — were singing. 3. — do not grow in warm climates. 4. Are not — among the chief vices of the day? 5. — have been made states within our recollection. 6. — are imported from Europe. 7. What large animals the — are!

Show why the following sentences are wrong, and correct them:—
1. A six weeks' trip have quite restored his health. 2. A rosy cheek, a good appetite, a robust frame, is among the blessings of a country life. 3. Ray, with his friends, were first in the field. 4. The remembrance of past joys are always pleasant. 5. The ph

cian and surgeon whose wife died yesterday were away at the time. 6. "Facts and Fancies," Dr. L.'s new work, are not in the library. 7. The "whistling oyster" is one of the greatest wonders that has lately appeared. 8. Was you present? 9. Friend after friend depart.



LESSON LVI.

1. Rain or snow is sure to set in.
2. Cass, as well as Webster, was a native of New Hampshire.
3. Neither Vermont nor Kentucky was among the original states.
4. Pope, and not Dryden, was the translator of Homer.
5. Every man and every boy has his mission.

Write the above sentences. How many subjects in each? Underline them. By what words are the subjects connected? In the fifth sentence, what adjective precedes the subjects connected by *and*? Are the verbs in these sentences singular or plural?

Two or more singular subjects taken separately require a singular verb.

Subjects are taken separately, when connected by *or*, *nor*, *but*, *as well as*, *and* *not*, *if not*—also when preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*.

"The driver was called, and the children put in the carriage."

Write the above sentence. What auxiliary is used with the last participle *put*?—The omission of the auxiliary before *put* would be right, if the same auxiliary were required with *put* as with *called*—that is, *was*. But, as *children* is plural, *was put* would be wrong. We must therefore supply the proper auxiliary, *were*—"The driver was called, and the children *were* put in the carriage."

Do not combine two or more participles with the same auxiliary, unless the auxiliary can be correctly used with each.

A singular noun implying a collection of individuals (as, *army*, *society*, etc.) often takes a plural verb; as, "The jury *were* all attention."

But, if the individuals are referred to as a whole, the verb must be singular; as, "This jury *was* dismissed."

EXERCISE.

Correct errors.—1. A stage or wagon meet every train. 2. Neither the lion nor the tiger are hard beasts to tame. 3. Truth, and truth alone, are the object of my search. 4. Do war or conquest constitute the whole of a nation's history? 5. Silk, but not linen or muslin, are animal products. 6. Not a word, not a syllable, were uttered. 7. The Yellowstone, as well as the Missouri, have been explored.

8. Each hour, each moment, have their duties. 9. In that prolific clime, no clod, no leaf, no drop of water, are without their minute inhabitants. 10. Every fruit, every flower, and every blade of grass, testify to the wisdom of the Creator. 11. The walls were levelled, and the city destroyed. 12. The avenue has been graded, and trees set out. 13. The mob were made up of the dregs of Paris. 14. The crowd was glad to hear such sentiments expressed.

Write a Composition on THE FOUNTAIN (see engraving, page 49). (Describe the fountain—the street in which it stands—the persons in the street—what they are doing. Tell what the fountain is for—who use it—how it is useful to men and women—how to horses—when it is most useful. Have you ever seen a real fountain?—where?—describe it—did it add to the beauty of the place?)



LESSON LVII.

"He *has* become rich;" not, "He *is* become rich."

"They *had* just arrived;" not, "They *were* just arrived."

Do not use parts of the verb BE as auxiliaries, when parts of the verb HAVE are required.

In conversation, the auxiliary and *not* following it are often contracted. Hence arise such familiar forms as

*arn't, don't, didn't, hasn't, haven't, won't, shan't,** etc. In writing, avoid these contractions.

Avoid corrupt forms: such as *ain't*, for *am not, is not, or are not*; *moughtn't*, for *might not*; *daresn't* for *dare not*; *had have*, for *had alone*; *hadn't ought*, for *ought not*; *had as lief, had rather*, for *would as lief, would rather*; *I'm a mind*, for *I have a mind*, etc.

It is the Root and the Past Participle of a verb that are combined with the auxiliaries to make the compound forms. These, therefore, with the Past form of the verb, constitute what are called the Chief Parts.

Regular verbs, for their Past and Past Participle, add **ed** to the root, the changes noted on page 68 having been first made, if necessary. *Ask, asked, asked*, is regular.

But there are many verbs, mostly short and in common use, that do not add **ed** to the root to form these parts, and are therefore called Irregular. *Be, was, been*, is irregular.

Mistakes in the irregular verbs are very common, particularly from interchanging the past form and the past participle. Such mistakes can be avoided only by learning the CHIEF PARTS OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS, as presented on the next four pages. Each page may constitute a lesson.

Simple verbs will serve as models for those formed from them. *BE-COME*, for example, goes like *COME*.

Some verbs, besides their irregular form, have a regular one in **ED**. This is denoted in the Table by the letter R. When two forms are given, the preferable one is placed first. Some old forms, not now in good use, are omitted.

* Observe that the apostrophe is used to denote the omission of a letter or letters.

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Burn,	R., burnt,	R., burnt.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Burst,	burst,	burst.
Awake,	awoke, R.,	awoke, R.	Buy,	bought,	bought.
Be,	was,	been.	Cast,	cast,	cast.
Bear } (carry),	bore,	borne.	Catch,	caught,	caught.
Bear } (bring forth),	bore,	born.	Chide,	chid,	{ chidden, chid.
Beat,	beat,	{ beaten, beat.	Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Cleave } (adhere),	R., clove,	cleaved.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	Cleave { (split),	{ cleft, clove,	{ cleft, cloven, R.
Bend,	bent, R.,	bent, R.	Cling,	clung,	clung.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Clothe,	R., clad,	R., clad.
Bet,	bet, R.,	bet, R.	Come,	came,	come.
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.	Cost,	cost,	cost.
Bind,	bound,	bound.	Creep,	crept,	crept.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.	Crow,	crew, R.,	crowed.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Cut,	cut,	cut.
Blend,	R., blent,	R., blent.	Dare } (venture),	durst,	dared.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	Deal,	dealt,	dealt.
Break,	broke,	broken.	Dig,	dug,	dug.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Dive,	R., dove,	dived.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Do,	did,	done.
Build,	built,	built.			

EXERCISE.

Correct the verbs:—1. A great wind having arose, it blowed hard all day. 2. I have forborn from asking you whether you done it. 3. Where was Franklin borne? 4. You overdone your part. 5. The sermon must have began before you arrove. 6. Possibly the connecting-rod may have broke. 7. Have you rebuilt your house yet? 8. Polhemus, having underbided the others, was chose superintendent. 9. If I had known that you come yesterday, I would not have forbade the ceremony. 10. You should have came before me. 11. I have undid the fastenings. 12. Christmas has came again.

Root.	Past. (I. he, we, etc.)	Past Part. (Have, had, etc.)	Root.	Past. (I. he, we, etc.)	Past Part. (Have, had, etc.)
Draw,	drew,	drawn.	Go,	went,	gone.
Dream,	R., drēamt,	R., drēamt.	Grind,	ground,	ground
Drink,	drank,	{ drunk, drank.	Grow,	grew,	grown.
Drive,	drove,	driven.	Hang,	hung, R.,*	hung, R.*
Dwell,	dwelt, R.,	dwelt, R.	Have,	had,	had.
Eat,	ate, ēat,	eaten, ēat.	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.	Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
Feed,	fed,	fed.	Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Feel,	felt,	felt.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Fight,	fought,	fought.	Hold,	held,	held.
Find,	found,	found.	Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Flee,	fled,	fled.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Fling,	flung,	flung.	Kneel,	knelt, R.,	knelt, R.
Fly,	flew,	flown.	Knit,	knit, R.,	knit, R.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.	Know,	knew,	known.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.	Lay,	laid,	laid.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Lead,	led,	led.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.	Lean,	R., lēant,	R., lēant.
Gild,	R., gilt,	R., gilt.	Leave,	left,	left.
Gird,	R., girt,	R., girt.	Lend,	lent,	lent.
Give,	gave,	given.	Let,	let,	let.
			Lie (recline),	lay,	lain.

* They *hung* the pictures, but *hanged* the murderer. The ham was *hung* up; the prisoner was *hanged*. OVERHANG makes *overhung* only.

EXERCISE.

Correct the verbs:—1. I meant to have went to the mill and drew that flour to-day. 2. The horses had ate and drank before starting. 3. Some disaster must have befell them. 4. Never would he have forsook his friends, had he not been drove to do it. 5. Has Joseph and Stephen fell out? 6. A beetling rock overhanged the precipice. 7. I have always heerd that we must not take up what we have not lain down. 8. Being almost froze, he 'aid down. 9. The river having overflown its banks, we lay some wards to the shore. 10. Perhaps she may have lien down. 11. here did you lie it?

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)
Light,	R., lit,	R., lit.	Shave,	shaved,	R., shaven.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Shear,	sheared,	shorn, R.
Make,	made,	made.	Shed,	shed,	shed.
Mean,	měant,	měant.	Shine,	shone, R.,	shone, R.
Meet,	met,	met.	Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Mow,	mowed,	R., mown.	Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Show,	showed,	shown, R.
Plead,	R., pled,	R., pled.	Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk.
Put,	put,	put.	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Quit,	quit, R.,	quit, R.	Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Read,	rěad,	rěad.	Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Rend,	rent,	rent.	Sit,	sat,	sat.
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Slay,	slew,	slain.
Ride,	rode,	ridden, rode.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.	Slide,	slid,	{ slidden, slid.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Run,	ran, run,	run.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Saw,	sawed,	R., sawn.	Slit,	slit, R.,	slit, R.
Say,	said,	said.	Smite,	smote,	{ smitten, smit.
See,	saw,	seen.	Sow,	sowed,	R., sown.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Speak,	{ spoke, spake, }	spoken.
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Speed,	sped, R.,	sped, R.
Send,	sent,	sent.			
Set,	set,	set.			
Shake,	shook,	shaken.			

EXERCISE.

Correct the verbs:—1. I knowed he had outgrowned that coat. 2. We seen the accident. 3. By sundown we shall have rid ten miles. 4. Had you been present and saw what I seen, your heart would have sank within you. 5. Have Emma or Julia ever sang that song before? 6. Are those oxen shoed? 7. Having been pretty well shook up by the journey, we slided down from the top of the coach. 8. Thus far not a word had been spoke. 9. We (*set* or *sat*?) by the fountain. 10. We have (*set* or *sat*?) things in order. 11. I have (*set* or *sat*?) there by the hour. 12. He must have (*set* or *sat*?) the barrel in the sun.

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past.</i> (I, he, we, etc.)	<i>Past Part.</i> (Have, had, etc.)
Spend,	spent,	spent.	Swim,	{ swum, } { swam, }	swum.
Spill,	R., spilt,	R., spilt.	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Spin,	spun,	spun.	Take,	took,	taken.
Spit,	spit,	spit.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Split,	split,	split.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Spread,	spread,	spread.	Tell,	told,	told.
Spring,	{ sprung, } { sprang, }	sprung.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Stand,	stood,	stood.	Thrive,	throve, R.,	thriven, R.
Stay,	R., staid,	R., staid.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.	Tread,	trod, { trodden, trod.	
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Wake,	R., woke,	R., woke.
Stride,	{ strode, strid,	stridden, strid.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Strike,	struck, { struck, stricken.		Weave,	wove,	woven.
String,	strung,	strung.	Wed,	R., wed,	R., wed.
Strive,	strove,	striven.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Strow,	stowed,	strown, R.	Wet,	wet, R.,	wet, R.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.	Win,	won,	won.
Sweat,	sweat, R.,	sweat, R.	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Work,	R., wrought, R., wrought.	
Swell,	swelled,	R., swollen.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
			Write,	wrote,	written.

EXERCISE.

Correct the verbs:—1. Who can believe the yarns spinned by old sailors? 2. Trees have sprang up amid the ruins of the village. 3. Ned has took the bit between his teeth and swam away. 4. She wrang out the clothes, and throwed them on the grass. 5. Before the page was wrote, the bell had rang. 6. I overheard him say his purse was stole. 7. You should have strove more diligently. 8. The teacher's patience was quite wore out. 9. He's threw his book down. 10. She hain't taught here before.

Write the three Chief Parts of underbuy; overcome; inlay; underlie; foresee; understand; forgive; mistake; overthrow.



THE INTERRUPTION.

The Darrow children had a little cart, and a fine large dog which they had trained to draw it. They would put the two youngest children in the cart, and Helen would push behind, while Ben and Charley would walk alongside, and drive old Major (that was the dog's name), as they had seen their father drive the horse.

One day, while they were playing in this way, a strange dog suddenly rushed up and showed fight. But Major was not a bit afraid, and though he was harnessed to the cart he was quite ready to defend himself and the children. Ben had to hold him back by the collar, for fear he would upset the cart; and Charley threw stones at the strange dog, till he was frightened and slunk away. How these children loved Major! There is no nobler or more faithful animal than a brave dog. Would not you like a playmate so trusty

Write the above story, inserting the proper point after each sentence.

Write the three Chief Parts of the twenty-one verbs that occur in the above story.

Write the story in your own language, as a Composition.

In the second sentence of the story on the preceding page, you see several words enclosed between curves. These curves are called **Parentheses**. They are used to enclose words thrown into a sentence by way of explanation.



LESSON LVIII.

Some common mistakes in verbs must be avoided.

Do not confound the verbs **LAY**, **RAISE**, and **SET**, which admit of an object, with the similar verbs **LIE**, **RISE**, and **SIT**, which can not take an object. Their chief parts should be carefully distinguished:—

LAY,	laid,	laid.	LIE,	lay,	lain.
RAISE,	raised,	raised.	RISE,	rose,	risen.
SET,	set,	set.	SIT,	sat,	sat.

We *lay* a thing down, *raise* it up, and *set* it in its place. We *lie* abed when we are sick, but *rise* as soon as we can *sit* up. They have *raised* the price; the price has *risen*.

The present participle of **DIE** (to expire) is *dying*; that of **DYE** (to color) is *dyeing*. The present participle of **LIE**, whether signifying to recline or to tell a falsehood, is *lying*.

Do not use **LEARN** for **TEACH**, or **FALL** for **FELL**. The instructor *teaches*, the scholar *learns*. The farmer *fells* a tree; the tree *falls*.

Simple verbs not given in the list on pages 93–96 are regular. Avoid certain irregular forms sometimes improperly used. Thus,

CLIMB,	climbed, climbed —	<i>clumb</i>	is a vulgar error.
DROWN,	drowned, drowned —	<i>drownded</i>	“ “ “
ATTACK,	attacked, attacked —	<i>attackted</i>	“ “ “
WEED,	weeded, weeded —	<i>wed</i>	“ “ “
HEAT,	heated, heated —	<i>het</i>	“ “ “

Use the regular forms,

Smelled,	Snapped,	Blessed,	Dressed,
Spelled,	Wrapped,	Cursed,	Oppressed,
Mixed,	Tossed,	Passed,	Distressed,

in stead of irregular forms in *t* (smelt, spelt, etc.) sometimes met with.

EXERCISE.

Correct errors (see pages 91, 92):—1. The icy blasts *are* departed, and spring *is* come at last. 2. During our absence, the children were grown amazingly. 3. Ain't you mistaken? 4. It is mine—I shan't give it up. 5. I daresn't speak. 6. Had Cleopatra not have fled with her galleys, the fate of Rome might have been different. 7. You hadn't ought to deceive any one. 8. We had as lief deal with you.

Supply the proper verb:—1. John came in tired: he (*lay* or *laid*?) down his books, and then himself — down to take a nap. 2. The farmer (*sets* or *sits*?) out trees in the spring; he — snares for rabbits; he — with his family in the evening. 3. Rents (*raised* or *rose*?) on the 1st of May; the landlords — them. 4. We (*sit* or *set*?) a hen; the hen — on her nest. 5. On her (*dying* or *dyeing*?) bed, as it were, she still thought of (*dying* or *dyeing*?) her hair.

Correct errors:—1. Who learned you to sew? 2. Some people have learned others, who have never learned themselves. 3. The room was *het* altogether too much. 4. I once heard of a bear that *clumb* a tree. 5. As we past the house, we wrapt our cloaks about our faces, fearing that we should be *attackted*.

6. Such measures opprest the poor, and in fact distrest all classes in the community. 7. The thread has *snapd*. 8. Have you *wed* the garden? 9. The boy was *drownded*. 10. Wine mixt with water was *past*. 11. I'm half a mind to argue that point. 12. Blest! no, to this day they seem *curst* of Heaven.

LESSON LIX.

On page 97 we had a pretty picture of some children and their dog; turn to it.

The dog was drawing the cart—	HOW?	<i>Slowly, rapidly, etc.</i>
Helen was pushing the cart	—HOW?	<i>Quietly, nicely, etc.</i>
The children were riding	—HOW?	<i>Gayly, happily, etc.</i>
The strange dog rushed up	—HOW?	<i>Suddenly, fiercely, etc.</i>
Major growled	—HOW?	<i>Angrily, loudly, etc.</i>

Write the above sentences. Answer the question asked by *how* each time, with all the appropriate words you can think of. These words tell *how* the action was performed. They modify verbs.

In the first sentence, *slowly* modifies the verb *was drawing*. In the second, what verb does *quietly* modify? What verb does *gayly* modify? *Suddenly*? *Angrily*?—These words, *added to verbs*, are called *Adverbs*.

A word used to modify a verb is called an **Adverb**.

With what two letters do all the adverbs in the above examples end? Write the words that we get by dropping these letters, *ly*:—

Slow, rapid, quiet, nice, gay, happy, sudden, etc. Are these words nouns? What are they? We see, then, that

Many Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *ly*.

The Adverbs in the above examples answer the question, *How*? They tell the *manner* in which the act was performed, and are therefore called Adverbs of **Manner**. But there are, also, other kinds of adverbs.

We might ask, *When* did the dog draw the cart? *Yesterday, to-day, then, often, etc.* Thus we get Adverbs of Time.

Where was Helen pushing the cart? *Here, there, hither, thither, behind, etc.* Thus we get Adverbs of Place.

How gayly were the children riding? *Very gayly, quite gayly, gayly enough.* Thus we get Adverbs of Degree.

Did Major growl? *Yes indeed, certainly, doubtless.* Thus we get Adverbs of Affirmation.

Did Major run away? *No, not he.* Thus we get Adverbs of Negation.

Some very common little words are Adverbs—*how, now, thus, so, off, far, up, down, while, till, more, most, once, twice*, etc.

In the examples thus far given, the Adverbs have modified verbs. They are generally used to modify verbs, and hence their name—*Ad-verbs*. But they may also modify other words, particularly adjectives and adverbs.

How happy were the children? *Very* happy—*exceedingly* happy. The adverbs *very* and *exceedingly* modify the adjective *happy*.

How loudly did Major growl? *Quite* loudly, *very* loudly. The adverbs *quite* and *very* modify the adverb *loudly*.

An Adverb is a word expressing manner, time, place, degree, etc., and generally used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE.

Write the adverbs of manner formed from the following adjectives:—Pure; sweet; solemn; coy; soft; rough; tender; sportive; vile; beautiful; musical; handsome.

DUE, TRUE, and their compounds, drop final E before LY. Write the adverbs formed from, True (truly); untrue; due; undue.

Adjectives ending in Y preceded by a consonant change final Y to I before LY. Write the adverbs formed from, Merry (merrily); busy; jaunty; pretty; uneasy; funny; mighty; ready; showy; lucky; gaudy; petty.

Adjectives ending in BLE drop LE before LY. Write the adverbs formed from, Able (ably); peaceable; disagreeable; horrible; ignoble; feeble.

Write twelve adverbs that occur in the story on page 97.

Supply adverbs:—1. — was the Garden of Eden? 2. She writes —, converses —, and conducts herself in all respects —. 3. — bells were rung, to keep — evil spirits. 4. A stranger — appeared; no one knew — he came, or — — he intended to remain.

*What thou speak'st, and — beware,
Of whom, to whom, —, and —.*

LESSON LX.

1. In this place (*here*) Carthage stood.
2. Spain was at that time (*then*) a republic.
3. She entered the room in a graceful manner (*gracefully*).
4. Eugénie dressed with great taste (*very tastefully*).

Write the above sentences in the fewest words. What is *here* equivalent to? *Then*? *Gracefully*? *Tastefully*? What are *here*, *then*, *tastefully*, and *gracefully*? We find, then, that

The meaning of several words may be expressed by a single adverb. Thus, *upside-down* = with the upper part undermost.

The adverb *there* generally means *in that place*. Sometimes, however, it is used merely to introduce a sentence; as, "*There* flashed across the firmament at this time a brilliant but erratic meteor."—Observe that the verb then precedes its subject—*flashed a meteor*.

Be careful, in this case, to use the singular or plural form of the verb (when there is a difference of form), according as the subject following is singular or plural; as, *There is many a man—but, There are many men.*

A loud song.

She sang loud.

A sweet song.

She sang sweetly.

Loud and *sweet*, qualifying the noun *song*, are adjectives. *Loud* and *sweetly*, modifying the verb *sang*, are adverbs. The two former describe what was sung, the two latter describe the act of singing. Observe that the word *loud* appears as both adjective and adverb; but, in the other case, there is an adjective form *sweet*, and a distinct adverb form *sweetly*—which must not be interchanged.

Adverbs must not be used for adjectives, nor adjectives for adverbs.

"The *now* mayor" is wrong, because an adjective should be used with the noun *mayor*, whereas *now* is an adverb. Say "the *present* mayor." "The weather is *remarkable* fine." Wrong, because an adverb should be used to modify the adjective *fine*, whereas *remarkable* is an adjective. Say "*remarkably* fine."

Mistakes are sometimes made by using adverbs instead of adjectives, after the verbs *look, feel, taste, smell, and sound*.

Say, "She looks *handsome*," not *handsomely*,—because it is intended to describe the subject *she*, and not to express any particular kind of *looking*. In like manner, say it feels *rough* (not *roughly*), tastes *bitter*, smells *sweet*, sounds *pleasant*, etc.

EXERCISE.

In the following sentences, substitute adverbs for the words in italics:—1. Bide your time *with patience* (patiently). 2. Do your duty *with care* and *diligence*. 3. *With firmness* and *in the most courageous manner* did the column stand its ground. 4. Children should do what they are told *with promptness*, *in a cheerful manner*, and *without saying any thing*. 5. *From that place* a good road leads to Milan. 6. *Without doubt*, Japan is *at the present time* eminently progressive.

Correct errors.—1. There's no snakes in Ireland. 2. There has been many failures this spring. 3. There are two years' interest to be paid. 4. There was cotton and corn in abundance. 5. There were no news of the expedition. 6. Tallow is melted very easy. 7. It's uncommon warm.

8. Tobacco tastes nastily. 9. How sweetly those lilies smell! 10. Do not talk rough to any one; speak pleasant to all. 11. Pussy's coat feels softly. 12. An old friend's voice sounds naturally. 13. The country looked beautifully. 14. The then governor behaved very rude to the new-comers.



LESSON LXI.

"The hawk flies high, the skylark flies higher, the eagle flies highest."

In the above sentence, *high, higher, highest*, modifying the verb *flies*, are what? They express different degrees. What other class of words may be made to express different degrees? How? How is the adverb *high* made to express different degrees? What is this varying of form, to denote different degrees, called? Compare the adverb *high*.

A few short adverbs are compared, like adjectives, by adding **er** for the comparative, and **est** for the superlative. Thus:—

HIGH,	higher,	highest.	LATE,	later,	latest.
LOW,	lower,	lowest.	EARLY,	earlier,	earliest.
FAST,	faster,	fastest.	OFTEN,	oftener,	oftenest.

We found some adjectives compared irregularly (page 53). There are, also, adverbs irregular in their comparison, some of which have the same forms as adjectives:—

BADLY, ILL,	worse,	worst.	MUCH,	more,	most.
WELL,	better,	best.	FAR,	farther,	farthest.
LITTLE,	less,	least.	FORTH,	further,	furthest.

More and *most*, as we have seen (page 52), give the simple form of an adjective the force of the comparative and superlative. They are also used, with like effect, before adverbs—particularly adverbs of manner.

<i>Adj.</i>	Graceful,	more graceful,	most graceful.
<i>Adv.</i>	Gracefully,	more gracefully,	most gracefully.

In using *more* and *most* with adverbs, the same principles apply as in the case of adjectives. Referring to the similar cases of adjectives on page 55, tell which of the following sentences are wrong, and why:—

- Of the two kings, Solomon ruled the more wisely.
- Of the three kings, Solomon ruled the most wisely.
- Solomon ruled more wisely than any other king.
- Solomon ruled the most wisely of the two kings.
- Solomon ruled more wisely than any king.
- Of all other kings, Solomon ruled the most wisely.
- Solomon ruled the most wisely of any king.

EXERCISE.

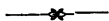
Change the following sentences, so as to express the same idea with adverb and verb, in stead of adjective and noun. Thus:—Our journey was rapid = We journeyed rapidly.

1. His song was sweet. 2. Their conversation had been pleasant. 3. Our ride to the seaboard will be hasty. 4. Your study of the subject must be diligent. 5. Piteous were their cries for help. 6. Your play has been too rough.

Supply adverbs expressing the different degrees:—1. John behaves *well*; James behaves better; Jacob behaves the —. 2. Sarah rides badly; Susan rides —; Stella rides —. 3. Anne ruled wisely; Elizabeth ruled —; Victoria rules —. 4. I love my companions —, my friends —, my brothers —.

5. Those boys are all lazy; Henry studies —, Dick studies —, Fred studies —. 6. We listened —; none could have listened —; he noticed that we were listening —. 7. Roses bloom early; lilacs bloom —; cowslips bloom —. 8. Speak loud; you should speak —; who speaks the —?

Correct errors:—1. You can read it easier by daylight. 2. Of all the other yachts, the Naiad sailed the faster. 3. The banana produces the most abundantly of any plant. 4. Of all our other cities, Chicago has grown the most rapidly. 5. Great Britain has extended her sway more widely than any empire. 6. Patagonia extends the furthest south.



LESSON LXII.

In using adverbs, avoid some common errors:—

Say, Hence, whence, thenceforth, etc.; not, *From* hence, *from* whence, etc.

For *from* is implied in the adverb, and should not be repeated.

Say, Since which (time), from which (place), etc.; not, Since *when*, from *where*, etc.

Say, Whether you remain or *not*, I will go; not, Whether you remain or *no*.

It don't make no difference.

Don't give nothing.

These expressions are often used for *It makes no difference*, *Don't give any thing*. But such use is wrong and vulgar. *Not to give nothing* means to give *something*. Therefore,

dig — for one. 3. Many are — borne to the grave. 4. I laid it down —, but — I do not know.

5. Upon the ice for pastime
— I slide and late;
And — the ponds are frozen,
How — I skate!

Introduce the adverbs in italics in the proper place:—1. In the evening bats are numerous, darting after such insects as they can find (*very*; *swiftly*). 2. How the locomotive screams, as it dashes along (*loudly*; *rapidly*)! 3. Sophocles died of excessive joy (*suddenly*). 4. The mariner's compass, in a rude form, was known to the ancient Chinese (*unquestionably*; *well*). 5. Dr. Kane must have found it cold (*certainly*; *dreadfully*).

Correct errors:—1. Then came Christmas, since when the sun has not showed himself for an hour. 2. From thence the adventurers climbed to a point from where they had a fine view of the ocean. 3. Wearied or no, Pizarro had to advance. 4. He don't care nothing for nobody. 5. You mustn't say nothing. 6. I can't find it nowhere.

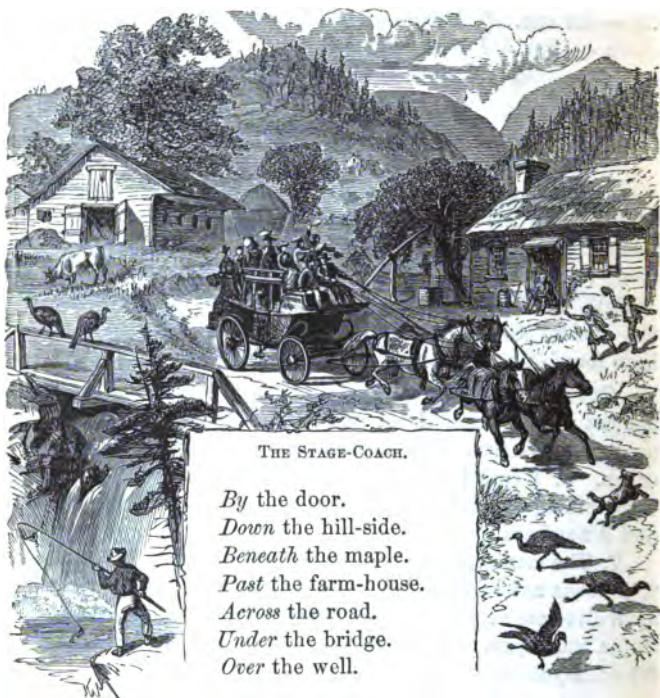
7. The manufacture of silk originated in China unquestionably. 8. Nevada not only yields silver but also gold in great abundance. 9. Wolves are very suspicious always. 10. Tea chiefly comes from China and Japan. 11. Bears have been known to ferociously fight for their young.



LESSON LXIII.

Referring to the engraving on the next page, write a Composition on THE STAGE-COACH.

(Describe the stage-coach—how many horses?—fast or slow?—where are the trunks carried?—where are the passengers?—where is it pleasantest to ride?—why?—suppose a shower comes up. In what parts of the country do stage-coaches run? Why do they not run between large cities? Is it pleasant to travel in them?—why? Describe the scene in the engraving—the mountains—the farm-house—the commotion occasioned by the stage—the children—the turkeys—the dog.)

*In the pond.**On his hook.**At the horses.**From the stream.**During the ride.**Before the stage.**Of the driver.**Upon the top.**To the village.*

Write sixteen sentences, appropriate to the engraving, each containing one of the above expressions; as, "A man is sitting *by the door* of the farm-house, looking at the stage."

The words in italics above, called **Prepositions**, imply different relations; *by*, in the last example, shows the relation between *is sitting* and *door*. In each sentence just written, underline the words between which the preposition shows the relation.

A Preposition is a word used to show the relation that a noun or pronoun bears to some other term in the sentence.

LESSON LXIV.

1. *After* a storm comes a calm.
2. *For* us there was no hope of safety.
3. School is *about* to commence.
4. *Without* laboring hard you can not succeed.

Here are four new prepositions; write them. Find the objects of the prepositions, by asking questions with *what* after them. Thus, in Sentence 1, "After what?" "After a *storm*"—*storm* is the object of the preposition *after*. What is the object of *for*? *about*? *without*? We see, then, that

A preposition may have for its object a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive, or a participle.

In Sentence 2, what is the object of the preposition *for*? What is *us*? Is *us* a subjective, an objective, or a possessive, form? Repeat the objective forms of the pronouns, page 45.

A pronoun that is the object of a preposition must be in the objective form; as, Against *me*, above *thee*, around *him*, behind *her*, among *us*, below *them*, with *whom*.

Many of the prepositions denote relations of time and place. Time and place are also denoted by adverbs. But there is this difference: a preposition always has an object, while an adverb has not. "The king rode *up* (prep.) the hill." "The king rode *up* (adv.)."

The *to* used before a verb-root to form the infinitive is not a preposition, but part of the verb.

"Over these roaring rapids a bridge has been thrown."

What is the object of the preposition *over*? By what words is *rapids* modified? The preposition, its object, and the words that modify the object, constitute what is called an Adjunct. *Over these roaring rapids* is an adjunct, and it modifies the verb *has been thrown*, showing where the bridge has been thrown.

An Adjunct is an expression consisting of a preposition, its object, and the words that modify the object.

The meaning of an adjunct may sometimes be expressed by a single word. And this word, if the adjunct

modifies a noun, will be an adjective,—if it modifies a verb, an adverb. Thus:—

A rim *of metal* = A *metallic* (adj.) rim.

A man *with gray hair* = A *gray-haired* (adj.) man.

Bathing *in salt-water* = *Salt-water* (adj.) bathing.

They advanced *with bravery, in a brave manner.* — *Bravely* (adv.)

In former times, almost everybody snuffed. — *Formerly* (adv.)

He defended himself *without being at all daunted.* — *Undauntedly* (adv.)

EXERCISE.

Substitute for each adjunct a single equivalent word, and mark over it adj. if an adjective,—adv., if an adverb:—

1. A cord *of silk*; ponies *from Canada*; people *with long noses*; the train *for New Haven*; the road *along the river*; stories *of interest* to all; the boy *with the best temper*. 2. It happened *by accident—by bad luck—by good fortune—with advantage* to all. 3. A residence *in the country* is preferable. 4. Pray *without ceasing*. 5. The Swiss resisted *with resolution and success*.

*Substitute an equivalent adjunct for each adjective and adverb in italics:—*1. A *curly-headed* lass; *fair-complexioned* boys; *grave and dignified* men; *golden* chains. 2. They saluted each other *courtteously but silently*. 3. School-books should be bound *neatly and substantially*. 4. *Nowadays* boys are educated *scientifically*.

*Supply prepositions, and underline the adjuncts:—*1. The flesh — the kangaroo is exported — Australia as an article — food. 2. — Venezuela, candles are manufactured — turtles' eggs and the fat — alligators. 3. We rode — sunset, — hills, — fruitful vales, — winding streams, — thriving villages, — nothing to annoy us — the dust.

LESSON LXV.

PRE means *before*. A preposition (*position before*) is so called because it almost always stands before its object. Sometimes, however, the preposition follows its object; as, the *world over*,—*whom* I look UPON as friends.

An adjunct must stand near the word it is intended to modify. "A young lady was playing on the piano with auburn hair." Did the auburn hair belong to the young lady or the piano? Put the adjunct in its right place.

"I do not wish for any." "I will consider of it."

We often hear such expressions, but they are wrong. *Wish* and *consider* are verbs that take objects themselves; omit the prepositions, therefore, before the objects. "I do not wish any." "I will consider it."

Do not introduce a preposition, to take for its object what is really the object of a verb.

So, it generally sounds ill to combine a verb and preposition with the same object; as, "Showers seldom moisten, in fact they are almost unknown on, these great plains." Vary the expression: "Showers are seldom if ever (or *seldom or never*) known on these great plains."

Appropriate prepositions must be used. Thus, say

Different *from*, not *to*. Adapted *to*, not *for*.

Attended, accompanied, *by* that which has life (friends, etc.).

" " *with* things without life (results, etc.).

We compare one thing *with* another, as regards quality or quantity; we compare one thing *to* another, for the sake of illustration.

A thing is divided *between* two persons, *among* more than two.

EXERCISE.

Write sentences containing the following, and remember the prepositions to be used in connection with the given words:—

Accuse *of*.

Confide *in*.

Prefer *to*.

Arrive *in* or *at*.

Deprive *of*.

Sympathize *with*.

Bestow *on*.

Dislike *to*.

Weary *of*.

*Introduce the adjuncts properly:—*1. Milo, by lifting a calf every day till it grew up, was able to lift an ox (*of Crotona—in the end*). 2. Two women were kneading dough, and two others were making butter (*in large troughs—with glass eyes—with gray hair*). 3. Tulips were first brought from Constantinople (*in 1559—to west*).

ern Europe). The plant was in great demand, and extravagant sums were paid (*in a few years—in Germany and Holland—for choice varieties*). A thousand dollars was no unusual price; and a trader of Haarlem was actually known to give half his fortune (*for a rare bulb—in one case—for a single root*).

Correct errors:—1. Between you and I, he knows very little, compared to his father. 2. Dr Johnson who people generally speak of as a great critic was biassed in some of his judgments. 3. Who did you bow to? 4. That hint must have been intended for you and she. 5. The ball penetrated in the left lung. 6. We can all recollect of doing things that we regret. 7. By writing of compositions, we learn to write fluently.

8. Imagine of Cicero wearing a swallow-tailed coat and a high hat. 9. Mrs. Griggs had five daughters, and divided her property between them. 10. Our present school-books are quite different to those of old times, and better adapted for the young; they are often accompanied by illustrations. 11. Lord bacon was accused with receiving bribes. 12. Pharaoh was overwhelmed by shame. Pharaoh's host was overwhelmed with the waves.



LESSON LXVI.

KEEP TO THE RIGHT.

Keep to the right, as the law directs,

For such is the rule of the road;

Keep to the right, whoever expects

Securely to carry life's load.

Keep to the right, with God's word for your guide;

Nor wander, though folly allure;

Keep to the right, and turn never aside

From what's holy, and faithful, and pure.

Keep to the right in whatever you do,

And claim but your own on the way;

Keep to the right, and hold on to the true,

From the morn to the close of life's day.

Copy the preceding lines. Underline each adjunct; put two lines under each preposition, and adv. over each adverb.

With what kind of letter does each of the above lines begin?

Commence with a capital every line of poetry.

Look at the first verse. What do you observe with respect to the sounds that the first and the third line end with? With respect to the second and the fourth line? This is called **Rhyming**.

Which lines in the second verse rhyme? Which in the third verse?

The following words, if arranged properly, will make a fourth verse, rhyming like the other three. See whether you can so arrange them.

Keep to the right without and within, with friend, and kindred, and stranger; keep to the right, and no doubt need you have that in the end all will be well.

Write a Composition in prose on KEEP TO THE RIGHT

(When this sign is put up on a bridge, what does it mean? What is gained by keeping to the right? Apply it practically. What is meant by keeping to the right in life? How may a boy or girl keep to the right?—a man or woman?—a merchant?—a farmer?—a professional man? What teaches us how to keep to the right?)

LESSON LXVII.

"Yet Alexander, if we may believe history, loved candor and truth."

What connects the words *candor* and *truth*? What word connects the clause *we may believe history* with the rest of the sentence? What word connects the whole sentence with what goes before? Here, then, we have some words—*yet, if, and*—whose office is to connect. Such words are called **Conjunctions**.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

The parts of a sentence connected by a conjunction may be of equal rank; they are then called **Member**

“Cast thy bread upon the waters; **FOR** thou shalt find it after many days”—two members connected by *for*.

Or one of the parts so connected, while it has its own subject and verb, may be subordinate to the other; as, “I know **THAT** *justice will prevail*. Such a division is called a **Clause**.

EXAMPLES.—“Either Washington or Lafayette might have turned the tide; but neither was there.” Are the divisions connected by the conjunction *but*, clauses or members? What do *either* and *or* connect?

“*Although (though) neither oxygen nor hydrogen is a liquid, yet together they form water.*” Is the division introduced by the conjunction *although*, a clause or a member? What do the conjunctions *neither* and *nor* connect?

Members of a sentence are generally separated by the semicolon; clauses are, for the most part, set off by the comma. See examples above.

Sometimes two or more words are used together as a connective, and thus have the force of a conjunction; as,

inasmuch as,	as well,	notwithstanding that,	as if,
forasmuch as,	as well as,	except that,	as though.

Subjects connected by *and*, as we have seen, take a verb and pronoun in the plural; as, “Honesty and temperance *have their* reward.”

Subjects connected by *or*, *nor*, or *as well as*, take a verb and pronoun in the singular; as, “Honesty, as well as temperance, *has its* reward.”

If it <i>be</i> he.	Though he <i>slay</i> me.
If he <i>were</i> I.	Beware lest thou <i>fall</i> .
If thou <i>loved</i> me.	See that thou <i>have</i> no fear.
Unless thou <i>go</i> .	Whether I <i>be</i> well or ill.

Observe these forms. In certain clauses introduced by the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, *that*, *whether*, we find *be* and *were* used with all subjects, and the present and past of other verbs unchanged with *thou* and *he*.

EXERCISE.

*Select the conjunctions, and state whether they connect words, sentences, or parts of a sentence:—*1. Nevertheless, both painters and sculptors go to Rome, that they may study in its art-galleries. 2. Whereas some regard Cromwell as having been just and upright, others have looked upon him as a greater tyrant than the Stuarts. 3. Notwithstanding they were in manuscript, books were formerly more prized than at present, because they were scarce. 4. The act will become a law, provided the governor signs it.

*Supply the proper conjunctions:—*1. — dead, he yet liveth. 2. Charles XII. acted — he were mad. 3. See — you carve out your own fortune, — you would have any. 4. — the ruby — the diamond are more valuable — the emerald. 5. — Wellington — Blücher was singly a match for Napoleon; — together they overthrew him, — shaped the destinies of Europe. 6. Amerigo Vespucci, — Americus Vesputius, was a Florentine, — I am mistaken.



LESSON LXVIII.

A word or clause having common connection with two words or clauses joined by a conjunction, must be adapted to each.

“Europe is more populous, but not so large, (*than or as?*) America.” Neither *than* nor *as* suits both the preceding expressions, for we can not properly say *so large than* nor *more populous as*. Correct thus: “Europe is more populous than America, but not so large.”

Avoid some common errors in the use of conjunctions. Thus, we should say,

See *whether* you can do it—not *if*.

I have no doubt *that* he went—not *but* or *but that*.

He said *that* the sap was running—not *as how*.

She has no other home *than* this—not *but* this.

Cæsar could not do otherwise *than* advance—not *but*.

It looks *as if* it would rain—not *as though*.

The comma is used to set off,

1. Very short members; as, "I came, I saw, I conquered." Also, clauses introduced by a conjunction, unless the connection is too close for any point; see Sentences 1-4 at the commencement of the last Exercise.

2. Each of a series of words of the same class; as, "Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth, were children of Henry VIII." With only two words connected by a conjunction, use no comma; as, "Mary and Elizabeth were children of Henry VIII."

3. An equivalent introduced by *or*; as, "Platinum, or platina, is one of the heaviest metals."

4. Pairs of words connected by a conjunction; as, "Snow and hail, mist and steam, are but water in different forms."

EXERCISE.

Make a list of all the conjunctions you can think of.

*With the aid of conjunctions, form one sentence out of each group. Thus:—*1. The moon has neither water nor atmosphere.

1. The moon has no water. The moon has no atmosphere.

2. Forbidden pleasures are loved at first. Forbidden pleasures in the end become distasteful.

3. The fox seeks its prey alone. The pole-cat seeks its prey alone. Wolves hunt in packs. Wild dogs hunt in packs.

4. The Guinea-pig has an inappropriate name. It is not a pig. It does not come from Guinea. It comes from South America.

5. Many things are prized, not on account of any merit they possess. Many things are prized because they are rare. Many things are prized because they are fashionable.

6. Mercury is nearer to the sun than the earth is. So is Venus. Mars is farther from the sun than the earth is. So is Jupiter. So is Saturn. So is Uranus; Uranus is otherwise called Herschel. So is Neptune.

*Correct errors:—*1. Dress, as well as fashion, number their votaries by thousands. 2. If I was you, I would lay down. 3. If

advice was gold, we would have less of it. 4. Though she causes my death, I will never forsake her. 5. Take care that thou doest it well. 6. Dryden is not equal, nor to be compared, to Milton. 7. Amiability is longer-lived and preferable (*than* or *to*?) beauty. 8. I doubt if any other but Washington could have brought the war to a successful issue. 9. Live as though you would die to-morrow. 10. Did you say as how he had tried if he could lift it? 11. Doubt not but that virtue will have its reward.

Insert the semicolon and comma:—I almost killed the bird, said the fowler but Almost never made a stew. 2. A man is never alone for God is with him. 3. Wit entertains but wisdom delights. 4. Lakes and rivers hills and plains mountains and valleys all are beautiful. 5. Gold silver platinum and copper have been used for coin-ing. 6. New Holland or Australia is a land of wonders. 7. Away they went, pell-mell hurry-skurry with clang and clatter whoop and halloo.

Labor and faith and prayer are worth
More than the richest stores of earth.



LESSON LXIX.

Hurrah! the day is ours.

Alas! Sorrow and I are wed.

Hallo! who is there?

Adieu! peace be with thee.

Here we have a new class of words—*hurrah!* *alas!* *hallo!* *adieu!*—expressing strong feeling. What feeling does *alas* express? What feeling does *hurrah* express? Are they connected with other words in construction? Such words are called **Interjections**. What point follows each of the interjections used above?

An Interjection is a word not connected in construction with other words, but used to express some strong or sudden feeling.

The principal Interjections, arranged according to the feelings they express, are as follows:—

1. *Exultation*. Ah! aha! hey! heyday! hurrah! huzza!

2. *Sorrow*. Ah! oh! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay!

3. *Wonder*. Ha! indeed! strange! what! hoity-toity! zounds!

4. *Approval.* Bravo! well done!
5. *Contempt, aversion.* Faugh! fie! fudge! pugh! pshaw! tut!
6. *Weariness.* Heigh-ho!
7. *Merriment.* Ha, ha, ha! (an imitation of the sound of laughter).
8. *Desire to drive away.* Aroynt! avaunt! begone! off! shoo!
9. *Desire to address or salute.* O, hail! all-hail! welcome!
10. *Desire for one's welfare on leaving.* Adieu! farewell! good-by!
11. *Desire for attention.* Ho! what ho! hallo! ahoy! lo! hark!
12. *Desire for silence.* Hist! whist! hush! mum!
13. *Desire to stop or interrupt another.* Avast! hold! soft!
14. *Desire for information.* Eh? hey?

Most interjections are followed by the exclamation-point, as in the above list. *Eh* and *hey*, implying questions, are followed by the interrogation-point; as, "You like this, *hey*?"

O, always a capital, is used in addressing, and is not generally followed by the exclamation-point; as, "Whither, O Justice, hast thou departed?"

EXERCISE.

Supply appropriate interjections, and such points as are needed:
 —1. — Babylon has fallen 2. There goes the bell. — who can be coming at this time of night 3. — what noise was that 4. — why should the spirit of mortal be proud 5. Bless us, — Peace, with thy all-radiant smile 6. — I am tired out 7. Sweet hope, — henceforth my days are sad 8. You avoid me, —? 9. Not ready for breakfast yet! —

Write fourteen sentences, expressing in turn the feelings of exultation, sorrow, etc., mentioned above, and into each introduce appropriately one of the interjections in the list.

Questions.—What words are names? *Ans.* Nouns. What words affirm an action or state? What words describe or limit the meaning of nouns? What words modify verbs? What words connect? What words are used in stead of nouns? What words are exclamations, expressing sudden feeling? What words denote relations of time, place, etc.? What words have singular and plural forms? What words are compared? What classes of words are never changed at all?

LESSON LXX.

In the preceding Lessons we have met with several different classes of words,—not equally important, but all sometimes used in the expression of thought.

The Verb is indispensable in every sentence; a Noun or Pronoun is its usual subject. This noun or pronoun may have an Adjective to modify it, and a Preposition to express its relation to other terms. The verb may be modified by an Adverb. When words or sentences need to be connected, the Conjunction comes into play; and exclamations are made with the Interjection.

How many classes of words, then, have we found? To these some add a ninth class, called **Articles**, containing only the little words **THE** and **AN** or **A**, which may be briefly defined as **noun-limiters**.

Others prefer calling **THE** and **AN** or **A** adjectives. The teacher will direct what these words shall be called.

Words are classed as nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc., according to their use in a given sentence. Before we can tell what a word is, we must see *how it is used*.

The same word, for example, in different sentences, may be a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. Thus:—

A FAST (<i>noun—why?</i>) was kept.	He drives FAST (<i>adj.—why?</i>) horses.
I WAS told to FAST (<i>verb—why?</i>).	Drive FAST (<i>adv.—why?</i>).

Again, the same word may appear as preposition, adverb, adjective, and noun; as,

They walked *past* the house. They walked *past*. *Past* sorrows are soon forgotten. The sorrows of the *past* are forgotten. (What is *past* in each of these sentences, and why?)

Or as adverb and conjunction. “Go *as* fast *as* you can;” the first *as* is an adverb, the second a conjunction.



"LETTING THE OLD CAT DIE."

Not long ago, in an orchard's shade,
Where children were at play,
I heard some words from a youngster's lips
That stopped me on my way.

"Now let the old cat die!" he cried.
I saw him give a push,
Then quiet stand, as he suddenly spied
My face peep o'er the bush.

But what he pushed, or where it went,
I couldn't well make out,
On account of the thicket of bending boughs
That bordered the place about.

"The little villain has stoned a cat,
Or hung it upon a limb,
And left it to die all alone," I said;
"But I'll play the mischief with him."

I forced my way between the boughs,
 The poor old cat to seek ;
 And what did I find but a swinging child,
 With her bright hair brushing her cheek ?

Her bright hair floated to and fro,
 Her little red dress flashed by ;
 But the liveliest thing of all, I thought,
 Was the gleam of her laughing eye.

"Steady! I'll send you up, my child!"
 But she stopped me with a cry;
 "Go 'way! go 'way! don't touch me, please—
 I'm letting the old cat die!"

"You're letting him die!" I cried aghast;
 "Why, where's the cat, my dear?"
 And lo! the laughter that rang around
 Was a thing for the birds to hear.

"Why don't you know," said the little maid—
 The flitting, beautiful, elf—
 "That we call it letting the old cat die,
 When the swing stops of itself?"

Then swaying, and swinging, and glancing back,
 With the merriest light in her eye,
 She bade me good-day, and I left her alone,
 "Letting the old cat die."

Exercise.—Which lines of the above verses rhyme? How does each line commence? Show where and why quotation-points, periods, interrogation-points, and exclamation-points, are used in the poem. Arrange the following words to make a verse like the above: "With the rose-light in her face, swinging back and forth and swaying, like a bird and a flower in one she seemed, and her native place the forest."

Tell what each word in the poem is—beginning, Not is an adverb.

Going through the poem again, write in separate lists,

1. Such plural forms of nouns as occur (*children, words, etc.*).
2. The possessive forms of nouns and pronouns (*orchard's, etc.*).
3. The verbs in the past form (*were, etc.*).
4. The infinitives.

Pronouns.	{	I. Definition.	{	Depend on the noun for which they stand.
		II. Forms.		
			1. Singular—name some.	
			2. Plural—name some.	
			3. Masculine—name them.	
			4. Feminine—name them.	
			5. Subjective—mention them.	
			6. Objective—mention them.	Denote what?
			7. Possessive—mention them.	

Adjectives.	{	I. Definition.	{	1. Proper—how formed? commence how? 2. THE, AN, A, by many made a ninth class of words, <i>Articles</i> .
		II. Classes.		
			a. <i>An</i> , when to be used.	
			b. <i>A</i> , when to be used.	
		III. Comparison.	1. Regular—what terminations? Changes sometimes required.	
			2. Irregular.	

Verbs.	{	I. Definition.	{	What they respectively denote.
		II. Verb, root—infinitive—how used?		
		III. Participles.	1. Definition.	
			2. Formation.	
		IV. Forms.	1. Present.	
			2. Past.	
			3. Future.	
			4. Compound forms—how made?	
		V. Auxiliaries—define—name—how varied?		
		VI. Chief Parts—what—why so called?		
		VII. Regular and Irregular—examples.		

Adverbs.	{	I. Definition.	{	1. Regular.
		II. Classes—according to signification.		
		III. Comparison.	2. Irregular.	
		IV. Position in the sentence.		

Prepositions.	{	I. Definition.	{	1. What it is. 2. Position in the sentence.
		II. Adjunct.		

Conjunctions. . . . Defined.—List of principal conjunctions.

Interjections. . . . Defined.—List of principal interjections.

EXERCISE.

Tell what each word is. Thus: *The* is an adjective (or article); *ladies* is a noun, etc.

1. The ladies held a fair in the building beside the church. 2. Besides being warm, it bids fair to be clear. 3. Besides, rest assured that we shall have a fair day. 4. As calm follows storm, so the rest of the grave follows the excitement of life. 5. So the water is calm, I shall have no fear. 6. Calm yourself, my friend, and fear not. 7. Man wants but little here below, nor wants that little long. 8. I told you that the little bird that you saw on that long branch was a wren.

Write a story about THE SWING, referring to the engraving on page 120. (Tell about the children going to the orchard to play—describe the scene—what they are doing—how the swing was put up—taking turns at swinging—how they were interrupted—the old gentleman's mistake—how he felt when he found out his mistake—what the children said and did.)



LESSON LXXII.

Rules for Capital Letters have been interspersed in the preceding Lessons. They are now presented all together, by way of review. Where capitals are not required by these rules, use small letters.

Begin with a Capital,

I. Every sentence, and every line of poetry.

II. Proper nouns, proper adjectives, and titles of office, honor, and respect, used with proper names.

As, *the Honorable Peter Doane, Member of Congress from Maryland; Samuel Sherwood, Esq.*—Write these examples, and those that follow in this Lesson, on the black-board, and tell why each capital is used:—Thus, *Honorable* commences with a capital, because it is a title of honor; *Peter Doane*, because it is a proper noun; *Member*, because it is a title of office, etc.

Under this rule fall also adjectives denoting religious bodies ; as, a Baptist church, an Episcopal seminary.

III. Common nouns personified in a lively manner ; as, "Fair Health has scattered roses o'er their cheeks."

IV. Appellations of the Deity ; as, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, Providence.

V. The first word of a complete quoted sentence, not introduced by *that* or any other conjunction.

A sentence cited in some other person's words is said to be *quoted*. Observe the different ways of introducing such a sentence. 1. Watts says, "Life's a long tragedy." (Capital, comma.) 2. Watts says that "life's a long tragedy." (No capital, no comma—but quotation-points in both cases.)

VI. The first word, and every noun, adjective, and verb, in the titles of books and headings of compositions, chapters, sections, etc. ; as, Have you read "What a Blind Man Saw in Europe" ?

VII. A word defined, or denoting the special subject of an article or paragraph. Find examples in this book.

VIII. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

IX. Words denoting great events, eras, or institutions, noted written instruments, etc. ; as, the Revolutionary War, the Feudal System, the Constitution of the United States.

X. Single letters standing for words ; as, A. M. (master of arts), P. O. (post-office).

EXERCISE.

Correct errors :—1. Alfred the great was the most distinguished of the saxon Kings of england. 2. chilo of lacedæmon, embracing his Son who had taken a prize at the olympic games, died in his arms from Joy. 3. i have read in sir F. Jackson's Work entitled "gleanings of an antiquary" that one of the important Questions discussed by the schoolmen of the middle ages was, how

many Angels can stand on the Point of a Needle? 4. michael angelo, at seventy years of age, said still am i learning. 5. an african proverb says that, It is easy to cut up a dead Elephant. 6. The magna charta was signed by king john. 7. address a letter to the rev. A. b. coe, d. d., burton, illinois. 8. aim not, o love, thy unerring shaft at my Heart. 9. Frederick the great of prussia, marching into saxony, commenced the seven years' war.

10. Maker, preserver, my redeemer, god,
whom have i in the Heavens but thee alone!



LESSON LXXIII.

Analyzing Sentences is resolving them into their parts. We did something of this on page 14, but now we are prepared to do it more systematically.

The Subject of a sentence has already been defined as the leading word denoting that about which something is said. Select the subjects of the first six sentences in the last Exercise.

When we say "the leading *word*," we mean a noun or pronoun, which is the usual subject. But the subject may also be an infinitive or a clause; as,

To die for one's country is glorious.

Whether Homer ever lived, has been disputed.

"Certain tribes in Africa, lacking better food, eat white ants."

Tribes is the subject. It is modified by the adjective *certain*, the adjunct *in Africa*, and the participial clause *lacking better food*.

The subject of a sentence may be modified by an adjective, an adjunct, or a clause,—or by all three. The subject and its modifiers form what is called the **Logical Subject**; and the rest of the sentence is the **Predicate**.

Logical Subject: Certain tribes in Africa, lacking better food.

Predicate: Eat white ants.

Each Member of a Compound Sentence has its own subject, logical subject, and predicate.

“One generation blows bubbles, and another bursts them.”

This is a compound sentence of two members, connected by the conjunction *and*. The subject of the first member is *generation*; logical subject, *one generation*; predicate, *blows bubbles*. The subject of the second member is *another*; predicate, *bursts them*; there is no distinct logical subject, as the subject has no modifiers.

EXERCISE.

Analyze into subject, logical subject, and predicate, the first six sentences in the last Exercise.

*Analyze the following compound sentences, according to the example at the top of the page:—*1. A merry heart maketh a cheerful countenance; but by sorrow of the heart the spirit is broken. 2. Newfoundland dogs often save persons from drowning; and the noble animals of the St. Bernard breed have rescued many a traveller lost in Alpine snows. 3. The Chinese, particularly such as live in and near the great cities, eat almost every living creature that comes in their way; dogs, cats, hawks, owls, and eagles, are regular marketable commodities.

Write a Composition on WINTER AMUSEMENTS, referring to the engraving on page 17. (Describe the scene—how the trees look in winter—the fields—the roads—the ponds—the streams. Tell how people have to dress when they go out—how they keep warm indoors. How they amuse themselves in-doors, how out-of-doors. Sleighing, sliding, skating, riding down-hill—which do you like best? What accidents sometimes happen? What do you see in the picture?)



LESSON LXXIV.

1. Cain and Abel were sons of Adam.
2. Cain was a son of Adam, and lived for a time in Eden.
3. Cain and Abel were sons of Adam, and lived in Eden.

What is the logical subject of Sentence 1? Of what does it consist?
What is the predicate of Sentence 2? Of how many parts does it consist?

Mention the subject and predicate of Sentence 3. Of how many parts does each consist ?

A sentence may have a Compound Subject—that is, two or more subjects connected by a conjunction or not ; or a Compound Predicate, consisting of two or more parts of equal rank ; or both. Write examples of each.

The subject is sometimes understood ; as, “ Aim (*thou*) high.” So, a verb or other words may be understood in one of the members of a compound sentence ; as, “ In science reason is the guide ; in poetry, taste (*is the guide*).” Analyze this example, and write a similar one.

From the Members of a sentence, which are of equal rank, must be distinguished Clauses, which are subordinate divisions, generally used to modify some leading word.

Examples of the principal kinds of clauses follow. Write the sentences from dictation, underline the clauses, and place two lines under the predicates.

1. *Whether Mohammed was an impostor* is the question before us.

This clause, used as a subject, performs the part of a noun.

2. Many wish the tree felled, *who hope to gather its chips*.

This clause introduces an additional statement with *who*.

3. *Abandoning hope*, Burgoyne at length surrendered.

This participial clause contains the participle *abandoning*.

4. *Wherever a man goes*, his character goes with him.

This clause has the force of an adverb, expressing place.

5. Laws are made, *to protect the community*.

This clause expresses the end or purpose.

6. There are none so deaf *as those that will not hear*.

Contains the latter of two terms compared, introduced by *as*.

7. *If the sky falls*, we shall catch larks.

Introduced by the conjunction *if*, and expresses a supposition.

A **Vocative Expression** consists of a noun or pronoun denoting an object addressed, thrown into a sentence with its modifiers, independently of other words ; as, “ *O Liberty*, what crimes are committed in thy name ! ”

EXERCISE.

*Select the subject, logical subject, and predicate—adjuncts, clauses, and vocative expressions:—*1. Whether the lion deserves to be called the king of beasts, has by some been questioned. 2. Abandoned by the Romans, the Britons could not withstand the inroads of the Picts and Scots. 3. So carefully is Belgium cultivated that the whole country may be called a garden. 4. If you let me make the ballads of a nation, I care not who makes its laws. 5. Industry and perseverance will in most cases attain their object and secure ultimate success.

6. O conscience, conscience! man's most faithful friend,
Him canst thou comfort, ease, relieve, defend.

Treat in like manner the sentences in the Exercise on page 115.

Write seven sentences containing clauses; see examples on the last page.

 LESSON LXXV.

The subject, and the leading verb of the predicate, constitute two **Principal Parts**, which must appear in every sentence and in each member of a compound sentence; as, *Boys study*.

A third Principal Part sometimes appears in the predicate, 1. As the object of the leading verb; *Boys study their lessons*. 2. As a noun, or its equivalent, used after a verb which takes no object; *Boys become men*. 3. As an adjective so used; *Those boys are studious*.

To analyze a sentence fully, tell what it expresses; mention its principal parts; tell by what words, adjuncts, or clauses, each is modified, and by what modifiers, if any, these are themselves modified. If the sentence is compound, treat each member in turn as just described.—Examples follow.

1. *The Russians surpass all other nations in one thing at least—the size of their bells.*

This sentence expresses a statement. Principal parts, the subject *Russians*, the leading verb *surpass*, and the object *nations*.

The subject is modified by the adjective (article) *the*.—The leading verb *surpass* is modified by the adjunct *in one thing*, whose noun *thing* is modified by the adjective *one* (itself modified by the adjunct *at least*) and the apposition-noun *size*, modified by the adjective (article) *the* and the adjunct *of their bells*.—The object *nations* is modified by the adjectives *all* and *other*.

2. *The man that hath not music in himself,
Is fit for treason, stratagems, and spoils.*

This sentence expresses a statement. Principal parts, the subject *man*, the leading verb *is*, and the predicate adjective *fit*.

The subject is modified by the adjective (article) *the*, and the clause *that hath not music in himself*. The principal parts of this clause are its subject *that*,—its leading verb *hath*, modified by the adverb *not* and the adjunct *in himself*,—and its object *music*.

The predicate adjective *fit* is modified by the adjunct *for treason, stratagems, and spoils*.

3. *O Autumn, bright with thy robe of many colors,
how can they call thee sad?*

This sentence expresses a question. Principal parts, the subject *they*, the leading verb *can call* (modified by the adverb *how*), and the object *thee* (modified by the adjective *sad*).

O Autumn, bright with thy robe of many colors, is a vocative expression, containing *Autumn*, the name of the object addressed, modified by the adjective *bright*, which is itself modified by the adjunct *with thy robe*,—whose noun *robe* is modified by the adjunct *of many colors*.

4. *“The Bedouins of Mesopotamia,” says a recent writer, “when about to set out on a journey, catch locusts, and string them together, to serve as food on the way.”*

This sentence expresses a statement. Principal parts, the subject *writer*, modified by the adjectives *a* and *recent*,—and the leading verb *says*, modified by the quoted sentence.

The quoted sentence expresses a statement. Its principal parts are the subject *Bedouins*,—the leading verbs *catch* and *string*,—and their respective objects *locusts* and *them*.

The subject *Bedouins* is modified by the adjective (article) *the*, the adjunct of *Mesopotamia*, and the clause *when about to set out on a journey*. The leading verb *string* is modified by the adverb *together*; and both leading verbs are modified by the clause *to serve as food by the way*.

5. *Go to the ant, thou sluggard; she will teach thee industry.*

A compound sentence of two members; the first expresses a command, the second a statement.—The principal parts of the first member are the subject *thou* understood, and the leading verb *go*, which is modified by the adjunct *to the ant*; *thou sluggard* is a vocative expression.

The principal parts of the second member are the subject *she*,—the leading verb *will teach*, modified by the adjunct (*to*) *thee*,—and the object *industry*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze, as above, Sentences 1-6 in the last Exercise; also the following:—1. Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow. 2. Life is like a shadow; how swiftly it flies! 3. The flesh of the horse has been long known to be nutritious food, and that of the ass is still esteemed a great delicacy in Persia. 4. The moon has no atmosphere or water; can it, then, have any inhabitants? 5. "Babylon," says Aristotle, "was so large, that on the third day the news of its capture by Cyrus had not reached some of the citizens."

LESSON LXXVI.

A succession of very short sentences does not sound well. Several such sentences may be combined in one, as already shown, by means of the pronouns *who*, *which*, *that* (page 40),—participial clauses (page 69),—or conjunctions (page 116).

In the story on the next page, combine into one sentence each group, using a pronoun, participle, or conjunction, as suggested. Punctuate properly. Exchange compositions, and let each scholar mark any mistake he finds.

Combining the sentences as suggested on the last page, you will have eight new sentences, which may be divided into three paragraphs. The sentences thus written may be analyzed, and the words classified as nouns, adjectives, etc.



THE LITTLE FISHERMAN.

Near a pretty farm-house ran a brook. This brook (*Pronoun*) wound through woods and meadows. It (*Conjunction*) finally emptied into a large river.

In the farm-house lived Mr. and Mrs. Browning. In the farm-house lived their five children (*Conj.*). (*Conj.*) The brook was the favorite resort of the young Brownings.

They thought (*Participle*) one afternoon that they would catch some little fish, to put in a trough. They all set out for a deep place in the brook.

For a pole, Arthur had a long branch. To the branch (*Pro.*) he had tied a cord. (*Conj.*) He did not wish (*Part.*) to hurt the fish. To the end of the cord he fastened a bent pin in stead of a hook.

A worm furnished him with bait. (*Conj.*) He threw in his hook.

Soon he felt a twitch. This twitch (*Pro.*) made him think that a fish was nibbling. (*Conj.*) He gave (*Part.*) a sudden jerk. He threw a minnow up in the air.

It would have fallen back into the brook. (*Conj.*) Frank (*Pro.*) was on the opposite side of the brook. Frank caught it in a net as it was falling. (*Conj.*) It was soon swimming in a pail of water.

This was done several times. (*Conj.*) The girls (*Pro.*) had watched the proceedings with great interest. They carried the pail home. (*Conj.*) They long kept the little fish as pets. The girls fed (*Part.*) them. (*Conj.*) The girls played (*Part.*) with them.

Sentence-building was explained on page 13. Referring to the engraving, from your own thoughts and from the suggestions made below, build up one long sentence on each of the following as a foundation:—

Thus:—1. From a little spring on a hill-side, where it has its origin, the brook flows, small at first, but gradually increasing and receiving other rivulets, till it grows into a large stream, and is finally swallowed up by a great river, through which its waters at last find their way to the ocean.

1. *The brook flows.* (From what—its size—it receives what—becomes what—flows into what?)

2. *Alice sat.* (The—*Alice sat*—how—on what—where did the stump stand—what was she looking at—wondering whether—.)

3. *The girls stood.* (Where—watching whom—crying out when and what?)

4. *The little fisherman jerked his pole.* (How—when—why—with what success?)

5. *Frank held his net.* (When—where—why—with what success—where had he obtained the net?)

6. *The fish was falling.* (Where had it been jerked—how was it caught—where was it put?)

7. *The pail was carried home in triumph.* (It had been filled with what—for what purpose—was carried by whom?)

8. *The brook glided quietly along.* (In midsummer, making what kind of noise—caused by what—looking how in the sunshine; but in early spring, fed by what—dashed along how—doing what to its banks, and what to the meadows that bordered it?)

LESSON LXXVII.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written language by points, in order that the meaning may be readily understood. The Punctuation-points are as follows:—

PERIOD,	.	SEMICOLON,	;
INTERROGATION-POINT,	?	COMMA,	,
EXCLAMATION-POINT,	!	DASH,	—
COLON,	:	PARENTHESES,	()
BRACKETS, []			

Some of the most important rules of punctuation have been already presented. We shall now review these and learn some new ones.

A **Period** must be placed after every sentence expressing a statement or command, and after every abbreviated word. Write examples.

Two distinct but kindred statements may be separated with the period, and thus made two sentences,—or with the semicolon, in which case they form the members of one compound sentence. Use the semicolon, when the statements are connected by *and* or *for*. Thus:—

“Count not on to-morrow. Thou knowest not that to-morrow will dawn.” (Or with the semicolon—“Count not on to-morrow; thou,” etc.) With a conjunction—“Count not on to-morrow; for thou,” etc.

A period denoting an abbreviation does not take the place of any other point; but, if an abbreviation closes a statement or command, one period suffices. Thus:—“He lives at Nyack, Rockland Co., N. Y.”—What point follows the first period? What double duty does the last period perform?

An **Interrogation-point** must be placed after every sentence and member expressing a question; also, after the interjections *eh* and *hey*. Write examples.

An **Exclamation-point** must be placed after every sentence, member, and expression, denoting an exclamation; also, after every interjection except *O*, *eh*, and *hey*; as, “How improperly you have acted! Fie! For shame!”

The Colon, Semicolon, and Comma, are used between parts of sentences, and denote different degrees of separation,—the colon the greatest, the comma the least.

A Colon must be placed before a long quoted sentence, and before any quotation referred to by the words *thus*, *this*, *these*, *following*, *as follows*; also, before an enumeration of particulars introduced by *first*, *second*, etc.

Curran alluded to the short life of Irish liberty in these impressive words: "I sat at her cradle; I followed her hearse."

"Geographers distinguish three continents: first, the Eastern; second, the Western; third, the Australian." The three different degrees of separation are here shown: the greatest, denoted by the colon before the enumeration; the next, by the semicolons between the particulars; the least, by the commas after *first*, *second*, and *third*.

A Semicolon is placed,

1. Between the members of a compound sentence, unless very short. Write an example.

2. Before *as* introducing an example. Find the semicolon thus used on this page.

3. Between particulars enumerated with the words *first*, *second*, etc. See example above, under the colon.

4. Before an enumeration of particulars, when the names merely are given; as, "Geographers distinguish three continents; the Eastern, the Western, and the Australian."

EXERCISE.

Write six sentences requiring the period after them; six requiring the interrogation-point; six requiring the exclamation-point.

Write six compound sentences, and punctuate them properly. The engraving on page 171 will suggest ideas.

Punctuate the following sentences; supply needed capitals:—

1. There are two classes of nouns first Common second Proper.

2. The moon revolves round the earth in the same time that she turns on her axis hence she always presents the same side to us

3. We all have to write different kinds of letters letters of business letters of friendship letters of introduction etc

4. Robin Hood was a noted highwayman of the time of Richard I sherwood forest was the scene of many of his exploits

5. The following are regarded as the great epic poems first Homers Iliad second virgils æneid third Miltons paradise lost

6. Mr W S Scott, treas pro tem of the Mt Pleasant R R Co , arrived in town yesterday at 6 p m

7. But three grand divisions of the earth were known to the ancients europe asia and Africa

8. There is a fine thought in the following lines of Coleridge

Hast thou a charm to stay the morning star
in his steep course So long he seems to pause
on thy bald awful head, o sovereign Blanc



LESSON LXXVIII.

A **Comma** is used to set off,

1. Adjuncts and clauses not essential to the meaning of the sentence, particularly when introduced between closely connected parts; as, "At length, Isabella, who had faith in Columbus, resolved to assist him." *

No comma, if the adjunct or clause is essential to the meaning; as, "Those *who begin revolutions* rarely end them."

2. Subjects introduced by *as well as*, *and not*, etc.; also vocative expressions, equivalents introduced by *or*, and single words relating to the sentence as a whole.

Thus:—"Hungary, as well as Spain, is noted for its wines." "A boon from thee, O Health, I crave." "Colon, or Columbus, was a Genoese." "Heat, therefore, is a force." "Milton, however, was blind."

3. A noun in apposition, with its modifiers; as, "Thus died Elizabeth, the good Queen Bess."

* It is recommended that the scholar write the examples on the black-board, as dictated by the teacher, and show why the comma is used in each case.

4. A logical subject ending with a verb or consisting of parts separated by the comma ; as, "Those that hide, can find."

A comma is used before a short quoted sentence, not introduced by a conjunction ; between very short members of compound sentences ; also, between distinct parts of a predicate, unless very short or closely connected ; as, "Prosperity begets friends, adversity tries them."

A comma is placed after each word in a series of more than two belonging to the same class,—or after each pair, if the words are taken in pairs ; also, after a word repeated for the sake of emphasis, with its adjuncts (if any). "Diamonds and rubies, pearls and emeralds, dazzled the eye." "Hope, hope alone, is ours."

When a verb previously used is omitted, a comma takes its place ; as, "Virtue brings its own reward ; vice, its own punishment."

EXERCISE.

Write a sentence of your own, to illustrate each of the rules in this lesson, imitating the examples given.

Punctuate the following:—Proverbs are short pithy homely sayings that embody the wisdom and experience of the million Though a man may miss many things he never misses his mouth The mill of heaven grinds slowly but grinds to powder Generally the rebukes of the just are worth more than their praise

"On the 27th of September 1066 at the mouth of the Somme there was a great sight to be seen four hundred large sailing-vessels more than a thousand transports and sixty thousand men were on the point of sailing The sun shone splendidly after long rain trumpets sounded the cries of the armed multitude rose to heaven on the far horizon on the shore on the wide-spreading river on the sea which opens out thence broad and shining masts and sails extended like a forest The Normans under William their gallant Duke were setting out to conquer England"

LESSON LXXIX.

"Honesty—where can it be found?" We begin as if about to say, "Honesty can nowhere be found," but after the first word change the construction. What point denotes the break?

"His air was majestic, his brow was lofty, and—his nose was red." The sentiment, at first grave, suddenly changes to humorous. What point denotes the transition?

"You are a—a—vile, worthless—" "Hear me before you censure," interrupted the other. The first speaker hesitates before applying the epithets, and is afterward interrupted by his companion. What point denotes the hesitation and the interruption?

"And this was Augustus—Augustus, Rome's emperor and the world's master." The word *Augustus* is repeated abruptly. What point denotes the repetition?

"Mrs. L—— was born in 18—." Letters are omitted from the name, and figures from the date. What point denotes the omission?

The **Dash** is used to denote a break in the construction, a transition in the sentiment, a sudden interruption, hesitation, an abrupt repetition, or an omission of letters, figures, or words.

A dash after other points makes them indicate a greater degree of separation than they generally denote.

"Borussia (such was the ancient name of Prussia) lay along the southern coast of the Baltic." Here an explanatory clause is introduced between the subject *Borussia* and its verb *lay*. What marks enclose this clause?

"Too many studies distracts [distract] the mind." Quoting from some one who uses the word *distracts* wrong, I enclose after it the right word *distract* within what marks?

Parentheses are used to enclose words that explain, modify, or add to the main statement, when introduced between closely connected parts.

Brackets are used chiefly in quoted passages, to enclose corrections, observations, or words improperly omitted.

The **Apostrophe** denotes the possessive case of nouns, or the omission of a letter or letters; as, men's, e'er, tho'.

The **Hyphen** connects the parts of a compound word, or joins the syllables of a word divided at the end of a line.

Quotation-points are used to enclose words quoted, or represented as employed in dialogue.

EXERCISE.

Write a sentence illustrating each rule in this Lesson.

*Punctuate the following:—*1. A letter may be omitted from the beginning middle or end of a word as *neath* for *beneath* *een* for *even* *thro* for *through* 2. Dr Johnson (and his remark always occurs to me when I go trouting calls a fishing pole “a rod with a worm at one end and a fool at the other 3. My dear sir I I I the fact is I am delicate about the matter 4. Who [whom have you seen 5. Mrs G is beautiful graceful and accomplished and talks through her nose 6. My country O my country hast thou so fallen



LESSON LXXX.

Errors in Speaking and Writing are so numerous that the student can not be too watchful for avoiding them. The most common mistakes have already been pointed out; further examples of these, arranged promiscuously, follow. The pupil is also introduced to some new varieties of error, and to certain faults of style and inelegancies of expression, with directions as to the proper mode of correcting them.

This Exercise may be divided into lessons of convenient length. Correct errors of every kind, and give the reasons.

Us boys *haint* had no recess.

Had Napoleon *have* *winned* the victory at Waterloo how different would have been the *destinys* of Europe?

A Frenchman, disappointed *with* english cookery, exclaimed, I *have* never before *seen* a land with fifty religions and only one sauce. I *shall* never visit it *no* more.

See if you can buy me Worcester and Webster's Dictionary at the bookseller's and stationer's next door.

I *dont* know but *what* if you had *arrove* sooner this *here* catastrophe might have been prevented.

No one of my fathers sons *have* been so lucky as *me*.

Five dollars *are* a small sum to leave to the poor.

Five dollars being referred to as *one sum*, the verb *are* should be changed to the singular form *is*.

How many times *are* four contained in fifty four.

Five-eighths *are* more than one-half.

By how much *do* nineteen-twentieths exceed two-fifths.

Wilson's "Travels in Turkey" which *were* announced last year *have* just been issued from *Blacks* and Co's press.

The Western prairie land produces largely *of* grain.

You *aint* going to depend on *him* coming, are you ?

Accept *of* this in the spirit in *the* which I offer it.

Clay's Calhoun's and Webster's are rare enough today.

It was supposed that his first act would *have been* to *have hurled* defiance at his enemies.

The reference here is to an act *future* as regards the time when *it was supposed*. But *have* does not express future time; say *would be* and *hurl*.

Another, perhaps, might have been able to *have managed* the affair better than *me*.

This valley was thought at some former time to be overflowed with water, and to be the bed of a enormous lake.

Mr M is one of *them* practical statesmen that *believes* in *geting* at the root of an evil.

The number of Mohammedans *are* said to be not *fewer* than 125,000,000.

The phenomena that *has* just appeared *is* wonderful.

We heard as how your barn was burnt.

Many a person *clapt* their hands on hearing this.

The class should here be shown a globe.

It is the *globe* that should be shown and not the *class*. Make the right noun the subject:—"A globe should here be shown to the class."

Thrice was he tendered the crown.

We were presented with sweet smelling nosegays.

The Nile is the *longest of any* river of Africa.

I *seen* some fine bananas, and was offered *a* orange.

Fred's brother's wife's sister's farm has been sold.

Interesting indeed are the accounts of the adventures of the immediate descendants of the first settlers of Kentucky.

Art thou not ashamed to see me here, when you recollect how I was lured hither?

Do not use different pronouns—*thou* and *you*—referring to the same person, in the same sentence. Change *art thou* to *are you*, or *you recollect* to *thou recoldest*.

Art thou not weary of waiting for your friends?

Such persons as have *winterred* in the Arctic regions and *that* have *came* back alive have a shattered constitution generally.

Every man who appeared and that we spoke to were too busy to answer us.

Fish have been discovered in subterranean rivers which have no eyes.

Them Chinese miners have the *spitefullest* dispositions I ever *seen*; they never forget *no* injuries.

On examining his horse's foot, he found his shoe was loose and cutting his hoof.

In the first part of the sentence, *his* and *he* are used with reference to the rider; in the latter part, *his* is used of the horse. Change to "*the shoe*," "*the hoof*."—*In the same sentence, do not apply the same pronoun to different persons or things.*

When they looked at their stock of provisions they found *they* were *near* ruined *with* the salt-water.

Angry men permit *of* no explanations *nor* apologies.

An old sailor was *setting* by a table with a cork leg.

That tongs has been *broke this* six months.

Husband and wife should love one another.

I and you and Reuben will start immediately school is out.

Modesty requires that we speak of ourselves last; say *you, and Reuben, and I*.—Do not use *immediately* or *directly* for *as soon as*.

I and the girls can go to the village directly dinner is over, *easier* than we can after dark.

There *are* no water, no wind, no sound, on the surface of the smiling satellite *whom* we call the moon.

Who can we trust, if not *them as* we have *knowed* from our most early years'.

We *hadn't ought* to do what conscience tells us not to.

To should not be used for the infinitive; say *to do*.

Mrs Jones *she* don't try to get work from *no* one, for she doesn't want *to*.

Hyenas are *equally* as destructive as wolfs.

If I *was* you, I would make them *to* obey the rules.

If you would stay *to* home, I *can* go.

Every professor and every student *are* required to keep *their* own record.

This constant censuring others is a bad habit.

Here the adjectives *this* and *constant*, used with the word *censuring*, show it to be a noun; and the preposition *of* is needed to indicate the relation between it and *others*. Say "this constant censuring *of* others."—In the sentence below, the use of the adverb *constantly* shows *censuring* to be a participle, and *of* must not intervene between it and its object *others*.

Constantly censuring *of* others is a bad habit.

The mending the table will not take long.

The cost of mending of the table will not be great.

We can not make men immortal by erecting *of* monuments of marble *to* their honor.

The *beau monde* will forgive dishonesty or falsehood *easier* than clownishness.

Beau monde is the French for *world of fashion* ; its use looks affected.—*Do not use foreign words or constructions, when there are pure English ones just as expressive.*

A Table of Latin and French expressions often used, with their English equivalents, will be found on page 176.

The opening ceremonies passed off *comme il faut*. The president was quite *au fait* in his part, the *tout ensemble* was grand, and every thing was *en règle*. The exhibition bids *fairly* to be a great success, but *nous verrons*.

We may remark *en passant* that New England *is* long celebrated for its manufactures.

To become great without ceasing to be virtuous is a noble undertaking, but in which few have succeeded.

Which is a sufficient connective ; remove *but*—or say *but one in which*.

The use of the word *except* for *accept* is a bad *lapsus lingue*, but which we often hear.

Of all *other* of our acquaintances, flatterers are generally the least *friendliest* and the *selfishest*.

It was Jackson who *inaugurated* the practice of bestowing the offices within his gift to his political friends.

Inaugurated is here used in the sense of *introduced*—a sense not authorized by good usage. We inaugurate a president or a public hall, but not a practice.—*Do not use questionable words, or any word in a signification not authorized by good writers of the present day.*

Aggravate is often wrongly used for *provoke* ; *admire* (with a verb) for *like* ; *eventuate* for *result* ; *jeopardize* for *endanger* or *risk* ; *resurrect* for *revive* ; *transpire* for *elapse* ; *balance* (of persons) for *rest* ; *like* for *as*, etc.

It seems as *though* Turkey *was jeopardizing* her very existence by *aggravating* her northern dependencies.

I and he would *admire* to see you try *and* do it.

The war *eventuated* in France's humiliation.

It is to be feared that years will *transpire* before we see another such a *couple* of scholars.

Some were hurt by the *coach* overturning, and the *balance* were frightened pretty *bad*.

By his usual effrontery, he induced his friends to follow the same course *which* he had.

Few could conduct a campaign *like* Napoleon did.

Do you calculate to start to-morrow?—I reckon so.

It is better to use preventatives than remedies.

Learned speeches are illy calculated to please children.

Agriculturalists should constantly experiment.

He's a regular *brick*, but a little *cheeky* withal.

Such SLANG expressions are often heard, but they should not be used either in speaking or writing. Say, "He is a good fellow, but somewhat presuming withal."—*Avoid vulgar expressions and slang.*

Sam has got the small-pox.—Who has got my pen?

If you turn up your nose at people, they'll get mad.

First off we made for the river, and went in batheing.

Every once in a while some one fails up.

Pyrrius the Romans shall destroy.

A noun does not show, by any difference of form, whether it is subject or object; but the object generally stands after the verb. As in this sentence both nouns precede the verb, we can not tell which is to destroy the other. Alter the arrangement so as to state clearly, 1. That Pyrrhus shall be the destroyer; 2. That he shall be destroyed.—Expressions like this, that may be taken two ways, are said to be *ambiguous*.—**AVOID AMBIGUITY.**

The duke yet lives that Henry shall depose.

I will have (*ambiguous*) mercy, and not sacrifice.

Mary told her sister that *her* frock was torn.

Daniel Webster commenced a teacher at a early age.

I expect John will long remember that boy's beating.

A man was found dead this morning on a stoop that had evidently seen better days.

Wanted a situation by a young man, to take care of a garden and horses of steady habits.

The pleasure of relieving *of* the *misfortunate* can *only* be experienced by the benevolent.

The position for which he had applied and long expected, was now given to another.

Which being the object of the preposition *for*, another pronoun must be introduced as the object of the verb *expected*—"for which he had applied, and *which* he had long expected."—*Do not leave out words essential to a clear expression of the meaning.*

They did not enter the class they were assigned.

Railroads for which charters had been obtained and actually been commenced, were abandoned for want of means.

Who loves me, I will love.

The crops are plenty, and money abundant.

I seen the floor had been scoured with half an eye.

Everybody feels they have got to go to Europe.

Good writers used to use some words that have now gone out of use.

The similar words *used*, *use*, *use*, occurring so close together, weaken the sentence. This fault is called **Tautology**. Get rid of the repetition, by substituting other words or forms of expression: "Good writers *formerly* used some words that *are now obsolete*." The recurrence of the same sound in different words is also objectionable.—**AVOID TAUTOLOGY.**

One thing was a *wonder* to us—how *one* weak woman could accomplish so much.

Common schools, which poor and rich may attend in common, are commonly regarded as great blessings.

This was news to us all, for formerly formidable formalities prevailed at this court.

The fair was fairly attended, especially by the fair sex, whose fairy forms where everywhere visible.

At Athens, it was the birthright and privilege of every poet and citizen to rail aloud and in public.

The style is here weakened by the use of words that merely repeat the idea. This fault is called **Redundancy**. *Privilege* is implied in *birth-right*, *poet* in *citizen*, and *aloud* means nothing more than *in public*. Prune out these words that add nothing to the thought: "At Athens, it was the birthright of every citizen to rail in public."—**AVOID REDUNDANCY.**

Es is appended at the end of most nouns ending with final *o*, to form the plural.

Integrity is much the safest and most secure mode of dealing with the world ; it is attended with much less trouble and difficulty than dissimulation and deceit.

On Judas is centred the universal loathing of all men.

It was at I and you he aimed at in his remarks.

Another such a chance may never again occur hereafter.

A widow lady wants to hire a pleasant good-furnished room without children.

I confess with humility the sterility of my fancy and the debility of my judgment.

He answered surlily that he should persevere in it.

This sentence sounds ill, 1. From the repetition of sound in *surlily*; 2. Because of the short unaccented words *in it* at the end. Correct thus: "He answered in a surly tone that he should persevere."—*Avoid ending a sentence with a preposition, or with a succession of unaccented syllables or words.*

Though he lived holily and godlily, he made no great show of amiableness.

A preposition is a bad word to let the voice rest on, or to close a clause with.

Wrongheadedness is often a cause of unsuccessfulness.

His horses, being intoxicated, he had no control of.

He sided with, and was the chief supporter of, Maud.

The breaks after the prepositions *with* and *of*, terminating divisions of the sentence and relating to the same noun *Maud* following, are very unpleasant to the ear. Say instead, "He sided with Maud, and was her chief supporter."

No nation takes greater delight in, or gives greater encouragement to, education than us Americans.

Who can have any esteem for, or place any confidence in, a man that has betrayed his trust?

What is so exhilarating, what is more healthy, than horseback-riding?

LESSON LXXXI.

Variety in the construction and length of sentences is quite necessary. By using pronouns, participles, and conjunctions, combine the short sentences below, so as to make a connected Composition on "The Deer's Stratagem," with sentences of different length. Avoid faults that have been corrected in the preceding Lessons.



THE DEER'S STRATAGEM.

A hunter was looking for game among the mountains of Tennessee. He witnessed a remarkable scene. It showed in a striking light the instinct by which the lower animals are sometimes guided.

On the branch of a pine at some distance, he observed a wild-cat. It was quietly crouching, as if lying in wait for game. The hunter thought he would have a shot at the animal. He began to steal silently toward the pine. He had not taken many steps, however, when he saw the wild-cat make a spring. He saw it fasten

its claws in the back of a doe. The doe was accompanied by a buck and fawn. They had passed beneath its place of concealment.

The doe was in an agony of fear. In vain she tried to shake off her assailant. Suddenly she raised her head. She looked hurriedly around. She made a dash for an old tree. This tree had been blown over years before. It leaned across a little run in the woods, a few feet from the ground.

The doe nicely calculated its height. She dashed beneath the trunk at just the right spot to bring the wild-cat up all standing against it. She thus brushed him off from her back as if he had been a feather. Then with a grateful heart she rejoined her companions. They had taken the alarm. All three bounded out of sight. The wild-cat was disappointed. He was pretty well bruised. He slunk off in the opposite direction.

Besides *writing* the above as directed, *tell* the story connectedly in your own language, describing the scene as represented in the picture.

LESSON LXXXII.

Your Composition on "The Deer's Stratagem," if well done, must read much better than the story as told in the book, because the latter is made up of so many very short sentences. But there is a fault on the other side also. Sentences may be too long and involved.

"After they had left Cuba, the Spaniards found their way to Hayti, where one of their vessels was wrecked, and where they were well received by the natives, who looked upon them as a superior race, and treated them with a kindness for which the Spaniards afterward made but a poor return."

Here the subject changes too often (how many times?), and too many things are crowded into one sentence. This destroys its **Unity**. The remedy is to get rid of some of the subjects, and make two sentences out of the one.

"After leaving Cuba, the Spaniards found their way to Hayti, where one of their vessels was wrecked. The natives looked upon them as a

superior race, and treated them with a kindness which was afterward but ill requited."

So, the unity of a sentence is lost, if we express in it thoughts that have no connection. Thus:—

"This remarkable woman, who was possessed of an excellent spirit and a large fortune, died of the cholera, which was very fatal at that time in southern Europe."

Corrected.—"This excellent woman was possessed of a large fortune. She fell a victim to the cholera, which was very fatal at that time in southern Europe."

EXERCISE.

Correct violations of unity, separating into as many sentences as may be necessary:—

1. His death was a great blow to his countrymen, who immediately began to look about for a suitable person to succeed him.

2. Lake Titicaca, lying partly in Bolivia and partly in Peru, the ancient empire of the Incas, which was conquered in the sixteenth century by Pizarro, who invaded the country with less than two hundred men, is second in size of the South American lakes.

3. The march of the Greeks was through an uncultivated country, whose savage inhabitants fared hardly, having no other riches than a breed of lean sheep, whose flesh was rank and unsavory, by reason of their continual feeding upon sea-fish.

4. Pitt, who was born in 1708, and died in his seventieth year from the effects of an apoplectic fit, after a speech in the House of Lords against a motion to acknowledge the independence of America, was a great statesman and the first Earl of Chatham.

5. Potosi (and we may here remark that it is noted for its rich silver-mines, which were discovered by an Indian, who falling caught at a bush which came up in his hands with its roots covered with shining particles) is mostly an elevated table-land.

6. Alfred the Great, though his efforts, which were earnest and unceasing, were unable wholly to dispel the darkness of his age, which was the close of the ninth century, yet greatly improved the condition of his countrymen.

7. The worthy man has gone to his rest, but we understand that his afflicted family will continue the business.

LESSON LXXXIII.

1. Who hath killed the pretty flowers,
Born and bred in summer bowers?
Who hath taken away their bloom?
Who hath sent them to their tomb?
December.

Above we have a verse of poetry. In it, December is represented as a person, or personified; what words show this? How does each line begin?

Below are words which, if properly arranged, will make six more verses like the above. So arrange them, and present the whole poem, written, punctuated properly, and headed DECEMBER. Then classify the words as nouns, adjectives, etc.; and analyze each sentence (p. 130).

2. Who the birds so gay hath chased, linnet and lark, all away?
Who their joyous breath hath hushed, and made still as death the forest? December.

3. Who the laughing river hath chilled? Who doth make the old oak shiver?
Who in snow hath wrapped the world? Who doth make the wild winds blow? December.

4. Who, when the night-wind's swift and keen, on snowy drift doth ride,
o'er the sea and o'er the land—on mischief bent—who is he? December.

5. Who doth strike the way-worn traveller to the heart, with icy dart?
Who doth make the seaman's home—the ocean-wave—the seaman's grave? December.

6. Who at midnight hour doth prowl around the door like a thief,
creeping through each crevice and crack, peeping through the very key-hole? December.

7. Who the traveller's toes doth pinch? Who the school-boy's nose doth wring?
Who doth make your fingers tingle? Who doth make the sleigh-bells jingle? December.

Write a Composition on DECEMBER, telling about the month all that you can think of (Christmas, holidays, etc.).

In contrast with December, we will now present *June*. A model verse is first given. Here the first and the third line rhyme, and the second and fourth (which, to indicate this, stand a little in, to the right). Arrange, write the whole correctly, and head it JUNE; then classify the words, and analyze the sentences :—

1. The sun shines fair o'er flood and field,
 And all around is leaf and bloom;
 The meadows now their harvest yield,
 And zephyrs waft their sweet perfume.

2. Smooth and slow saunters the rivulet, 'mid stooping flowers
 and bordering grass; low and soft the birds are whispering to
 young ones in their thicket-bowers.

3. With pensive air the gabbling goose leads her goslings forth
 o'er the lake, while there quacking ducklings and ducks take their
 muddle in silent bliss.

4. 'Neath sheltering shrubs the busy hen, strong and swift,
 plies her vigorous claw, and with unctuous grubs feasts her brood,
 raked forth from straw and scattered leaves.

5. Tranquil, sweet June! thou art the fairest, brightest month
 of all the year; around thy sunny brow summer's first glories, all
 so dear, are wreathed.

Write a Composition on JUNE, presenting some of the above thoughts (with others) in your own language.

LESSON LXXXIV.

Letter-writing is the most important branch of composition, for every one has to write letters. There are business-letters, official letters, news-letters to the public press, letters of introduction, and ordinary letters of friendship. These have to be dated, addressed, subscribed, and superscribed, according to certain forms.

Date.—This generally stands first, on the right,—but sometimes at the end, on the left. It consists of the place, day of the month, and year.

The name of the post-office, town, or city (except in the case of great cities like New York, Philadelphia, etc.), should always be followed by that of the state; with obscure places, it is well also to give the county. If the state is omitted, as there are many places of the same name in different states, the person written to may be at a loss where to send his reply. The forms presented at the end of the Lesson will serve as examples of these directions, as well as of those given below. Follow them in punctuation and general style.

Address.—This comes next to the date, on the left of the page. It contains on the first line the name and title of the person written to; and on the second, *Sir*,—*Dear Sir* (the common form, even if a stranger is addressed),—*My dear Sir*,—*Madam* (whether the lady is married or not),—*Dear Madam*,—*My dear Madam*,—*Gentlemen*,—*Dear Sirs*,—*Ladies*,—according to the degree of intimacy.

Other forms are appropriate to relatives or intimates; as, *My dear Father*, *Mother*, *Sister*, *Brother*, *Wife*,—*Dear Uncle John*,—*My dear Aunt Mary*,—*My dear Jane*,—*Dear Friend*,—*Dear Robert*.

A clergyman may be addressed as *Reverend* and *dear Sir*.

When the date appears at the top of the page, the name of the person written to, in stead of standing first in the address, is sometimes placed at the end of the letter, on the left.

Subscription.—This consists of certain terms of respect or affection which close the letter, followed in the next line by the signature. Different forms are appropriate, according to the relative positions of the writer and the person addressed.

Yours truly is the common form. We have also, *Yours, etc.*,—*Yours respectfully*, *sincerely*, *faithfully*, *gratefully*,—*Yours ever*,—*Very truly yours*,—*Yours most truly*,—*Yours with respect*,—*Yours with high regard*,—*Yours in haste*,—*Your friend*, *servant*, *obedient servant*, etc.

Superscription.—We superscribe a letter when we place on the outside the name and title of the person addressed, with his residence, which should be written plainly and in full—post-office, county (except in the case of great cities), and state.

*Mr. Aaron F. Brown,
Eureka,
Gallia Co.,
Ohio.*

The word *Personal*, *Private*, or *Confidential*, may be written above the superscription, on the left, to indicate that a letter is on private business.

A letter of introduction should be left unsealed, and should contain near the lower left-hand corner of the envelope the name of the person introduced, in some such form as the following: *Introducing Dr. Gray—To introduce Mr. F. R. Bliss.*

When a letter is carried by private hand, it is usual to acknowledge the favor by placing, in the position described above, the words *Politeness of Mr. —*, or *Favored by Mrs. —*.

As regards the title to be used in the address and superscription, *Mr.* is in better taste than *Esq.*, unless a lawyer or justice of the peace is addressed. To use both (*Mr. Arthur Bates, Esq.*) is wrong. Either *Dr.* or *M. D.* may be used with a physician's name, but not both (*Dr. J. F. Drew, or J. F. Drew, M. D.*). *A. B.*, *A. M.*, and *LL. D.*, belong respectively to those who have received the college degrees of Bachelor of Arts, Master of Arts, and Doctor of Laws. When the higher title is used, the lower should be dropped.

*The Rev.** is the title for ministers, with *D. D.* or *S. T. D.* after the name in the case of Doctors of Divinity. *The Hon.** is prefixed to the names of judges, members of congress and the legislature, etc. The President of the United States or the Governor of a state is *His Excellency*.

The eldest or only daughter of the Welsh family is addressed as *Miss Welsh*; if there are other daughters, they are distinguished by their Christian names. Ella, the second daughter, for instance, is *Miss Ella Welsh*; on the death or marriage of her elder sister, she becomes Miss Welsh.

The forms on the next two pages will illustrate the directions that have been given. Let the student, for different Exercises, copy each form, following the punc

* Punctilious people use *The* before *Rev.* and *Hon.*; common usage omits it.

tuation, fill out the letter with matter of his own, fold, envelope, and superscribe it. In letter-writing, try to be clear and to the point.

76 Madison Avenue,
N. Y., July 3, 1876.

Mr. R. S. BRADDOCK:—

Dear Sir,

In reply to your favor of the 29th ult., just received, asking for information respecting the public libraries of this city, I beg leave to say that, etc.

I remain, dear sir,

Your obedient servant,

HORACE F. SWAIN.

Hill, Mass., July 1, 1876.

Messrs. HUNTER & BROWN,

Boston :—

Gentlemen,

Have the goodness to let me know, etc.

Yours truly,

NAT. F. SHORT.

Packet Northern Light,
Near Sandy Hook.

The Rev. A. B. BLAKE, D. D.:—

My dear Father,

I embrace the opportunity afforded by the return of the pilot-boat, to say one more farewell word, etc.

Your affectionate son,

REGINALD.

July 5, '76.

Franklin Station, Md.,
June 28, 1876.

Friend JENKINS,

My wife and daughter will take the early train to-morrow for Baltimore, to do some shopping. Will you have the kindness, etc.

Fraternally yours,

NOAH P. HURD.

S. H. JENKINS, Esq.,
Baltimore.

Dubuque, Iowa, July 7, '76.

To the Comm'rs of Public Works, St. Louis :—

Gentlemen,

Allow me to call your attention, etc.
Hoping to hear favorably from you, I remain
Respectfully yours,
JOHN D. SATTERLEE.

Nashville, Tenn., July 13, 1876.

Miss S. H. WENDOVER:—

Dear Madam,

Hearing that you intend to dispose of your farm in Blount Co., I write for information on the following points. * * *

An early answer will oblige

Yours with respect,

JAMES BROCKELBANK.

NOTES OF INVITATION.

(1.)

Dr. and Mrs. Rowe present their compliments to Mr. and Mrs. H. F. Stone, and request the pleasure of their company on Monday evening, the 10th inst.

7 Pearl St.,
July 3d.

(2.)

Mr. Rumford presents his respects to the Rev. Dr. Harlow, and solicits the pleasure of his company at dinner on Thursday next, at 6 o'clock.

No. 18 Hudson Square,
July 10th.

(3.)

Mr. D. R. Abbott presents his compliments to Miss Browning, and begs that he may be allowed to wait on her to-morrow evening to the Academy of Music.

August 1st.

REPLIES.

(1.) *An Acceptance.*

Mr. and Mrs. H. F. Stone accept with pleasure the polite invitation of Dr. and Mrs. Rowe for the 10th inst.

40 Hamilton Ave.,
July 5th.

(2.) *A Regret.*

Dr. Harlow regrets that illness in his family will prevent him from accepting Mr. Rumford's kind invitation to dinner for Thursday next.

All Souls' Rectory,
July 12th.

(3.) *A Regret.*

Miss Browning begs to thank Mr. D. R. Abbott for his invitation for to-morrow evening, and regrets that a previous engagement will prevent her from accepting it.

August 1st.

In stead of a formal note of reply, the card of the person invited may be sent, with the words *Accepts with pleasure*, or *Regrets*, written on it.

Following the preceding forms for dating, etc., write

A letter to one of your parents, giving an account of some visit you have recently made away from home.

A letter describing a visit to some place of amusement.

A letter describing the church you attend.

A letter to your teacher, describing the place in which you live.

A note accepting an invitation to dinner.

A regret, declining an invitation to the theatre.

A note to a friend, requesting the loan of a volume.

A note to friends in the country, announcing a visit.

A reply from the friends in the country.



LESSON LXXXV.

Business-letters should be brief, and confined to the business in hand.

Below are presented forms of certain letters which are constantly required in the counting-house. As different Exercises, let the student copy them in turn, dating and addressing, subscribing and superscribing each, in regular letter form :—

1. LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

We beg leave to introduce to you our esteemed friend, Mr. Barry Winslow of this city, who is about visiting Montreal in the interest of Messrs. Huntingdon & Co., correspondents of ours in New Orleans. Any courtesies or favors you may be able to show Mr. Winslow will be warmly appreciated by

2. LETTER OF CREDIT.

If Mr. Henry Foote, the bearer of this letter, should desire to purchase merchandise of your house, you may hold us responsible for such purchases to any amount not exceeding two thousand dollars (\$2000).

In the event of Mr. Foote's failing to meet any payment according to agreement, please give us immediate notice.

3. LETTERS OF ADVICE.

Under date of the 15th inst. we have (or, *We have this day*) drawn on you, at 30 days' sight, favor of Messrs. Hart & Dunlap of Liverpool, for £1250 ster. (twelve hundred and fifty pounds). Please honor draft, and charge the same to our account.

I have this day accepted your draft on me, @ 10 days' sight, favor of H. F. Dunstan, for \$560 (five hundred and sixty dollars), as advised in your favor of 16th inst.

Your favor of 30th ult. came duly to hand, and according to your request we forward to your address, per Central R. R. of New Jersey, 3 hhd. Porto Rico sugar and 2 bbl. N. O. molasses. Amount to your debit, as per enclosed bill, \$325.56, @ 4 months, 4th inst. Bill of lading enclosed.

4. LETTER WITH ACCOUNT.

We enclose herewith your Account to 1st inst., which please examine and advise.

5. LETTER WITH INVOICE.

Herewith we enclose Invoice of 500 bbl. superfine flour, which we forward to your address. Desiring to take advantage of present prices, we beg that you will close sales as early as practicable. Please advise us of any change in the market.

6. LETTER ORDERING MERCHANDISE.

You will please forward to my address, per Hudson River R. R., the following articles ; viz.,

15 bar. Mackerel, No. 1, Halifax ;

250 boxes Smoked Herring, medium.

On receipt of bill of lading, I will remit my note at 30 days.

Besides the above business-letters, the following forms will be found useful. The student, by a variety of exercises, should be made perfectly familiar with them.

Let him be required, for example, to write on the board his note at three months, to J. Hay, for \$100, with interest.

A note on demand, to Robert Dunn, for \$220²⁵/₁₀₀, with interest.

A receipt to Richard Roe, for \$150, one quarter's rent.

A bill against Jones & Co., for 50 bu. potatoes, at 75c.

A bill against Mrs. F. Hone, for 3 pair of kid gloves, 6 pair of stockings, and 1 dozen spools of cotton.

A sight draft on H. P. Howell, in favor of Bache & Co., for twelve hundred dollars.

A bill of exchange for £300, on Blunt Bro., London, in favor of Alfred S. Smith, ten days' sight.

A demand note, for \$500, to Hawkins & Merry, with interest.

Such exercises may be extended at the teacher's pleasure.

1. BILL.

Baltimore, July 15, 1876.

Mrs. D. S. FERRY,

To ALLEN & BLAKEMAN, Dr.

July	12	12 yd. Calico, @ 12½¢,	1	50
"	15	2 Silk Scarfs, @ \$1.35,	2	70
Received Payment,			4	20
ALLEN & BLAKEMAN.				

2. RECEIPT.

Received, N. Y., July 3, 1876, from Mr. A. F. Johnson, one hundred and twenty-five dollars, in full for one quarter's salary, to 1st inst.

\$125.

FREDERICK BLOSSOM.

3. PROMISSORY NOTES.

Columbus, July 8, 1876.

Thirty days after date, I promise to pay James Dixon, or bearer, two hundred $\frac{75}{100}$ dollars, at the First National Bank. Value received.

\$200 $\frac{75}{100}$.

BENJAMIN HADDOCK.

Springfield, July 17, 1876.

On demand, we promise to pay Andrew Block, or order, four hundred dollars, with interest, value received.

\$400.

CAREY & JOSLYN.

4. DRAFT.

\$800.*Davenport, June 22, 1876.*

At sight, pay to the order of Lewis Henderson eight hundred dollars, value received, and charge the same to account of

BROTHERTON & Co.

To Messrs. BALL & TULLY, N. Y.

5. BILL OF EXCHANGE.

Exchange for £1200.*Boston, June 20, 1876.*

Thirty days after sight of this First of Exchange (Second and Third of the same date and tenor unpaid), pay to the order of Philip S. Sterling, twelve hundred pounds sterling, value received, with or without further advice, and charge the same to the account of

HARRISON A. MORGAN.

To DANL. F. BENT, London.



LESSON LXXXVI.

Letters of Friendship are often required of us all; and, as persons are frequently judged by their letters, care and thought should be bestowed on this department of composition as on every other.

There is a tendency in young writers to spin out what they have to say, from a fear that they may not fill the sheet. This is to be guarded against. Given a certain amount of thought, and the fewer words in which it is expressed, so they are sufficient to express it clearly and elegantly, the stronger the style will be.

Sprightliness and wit in letters are always pleasing, but there should be no overstrained efforts for effect, no stiffness or affectation. Writing too much about one's self is a common fault, always to be avoided.

As an exercise in this kind of writing, prepare, according to the directions heretofore presented, a letter to some relative in the East, giving an account of overtaking an emigrant party at their noonday halt, during an imaginary trip westward over the Great Plains. The engraving will suggest thoughts.



HALT OF AN EMIGRANT PARTY.

Among other things, it may be well to describe the country—the distant landscape—the place selected for the nooning—any member of the party worthy of special notice—by what they were accompanied—the wagons and their contents—their place of destination and object in going there—the pleasures and dangers of this mode of travelling. What has made it less common than formerly?

Criticising, or passing judgment on a Composition, pointing out its beauties and defects, and taking special notice of such errors as may occur, is an improving exercise. It trains the eye to the detection of mistakes, and, if done orally, as here recommended, will help to give

the student a confidence and fluency in expressing himself which it is all-important to acquire.

For an exercise in Criticism, let the class exchange Compositions; then let each pupil in turn rise, and, after having read aloud the exercise he holds, say what he thinks of its sentiments, style, etc.—pointing out what he regards as capable of improvement.

Suppose, for instance, the following letter to have been prepared, according to the suggestions on the opposite page.

My dear Francis,

The Great Plains, June 30, 1876.

I embrace the occasion afforded by the return of a small party whom we have just encountered on their way back to civilization, disgusted by a series of misfortunes which have induced them to change their plans, to send you a few lines, which will inform you that I am improving in health, and still like the star of empire making my way westward. I am now with a pleasant party of sturdy emigrants, who, with their wives and children, are seeking homes in southern California.

I came upon them yesterday near a pleasant spring, where they had halted for their mid-day repast. It was a picturesque sight, and very welcome, I assure you, to a solitary traveller. The wagons, which serve at once as vehicles and bed chambers, were filing up in single file, the foremost had already stopped, the oxen were unyoked, the occupants had dismounted—and one of the women was in the act of kindling a fire to make a pot of tea. I was not slow in excepting a kind invitation to join them, which, though they looked somewhat roughly, showed them to have warm hearts. As long as our routes lay in the same direction, I will probably keep company with them, for, apart from the possible danger of falling in with some of the copper colored braves who divide their time between hunting the buffalo and cutting travellers throats, good company makes a short journey.

The high air of these plains are healthy and invigorating. The landscape was for a time monotonous; but since coming in sight of the mountains we have been charmed with a succession of most sublime views. My good Dobbin holds out well, game is abundant, and I hope to receive letters from home at the next post-office, which we shall probably reach in about two weeks.

With kind regards to all, your friend,

P. S. HOOKER.

THE CRITICISM.—The student criticising the above might say: "The chief objection that I have to this Composition is that it is tame. The description is not sufficiently vivid or particular to interest us in the scene or the persons. Besides, it seems improbable that a person should be making the overland trip alone on horseback, as the writer of this letter is represented as doing before he met the emigrants.

"As regards the form of the letter, the name of the person addressed should appear, either above the words *My dear Francis* or at the end.'

"The first sentence contains the word *occasion*, improperly used for *opportunity*; it is also deficient in unity, in consequence of the frequent change of subject. Two sentences are needed: *I embrace the opportunity of sending this brief note, to be mailed to you by a small party whom a series of misfortunes in their western experience has led to retrace their steps. It will inform you, etc.*

"The next error I discover is in the spelling of the word *pleasant*. I find no fault with the next two sentences; but in the following one, *bed chambers* should be connected with the hyphen,—the tautology and redundancy in *filing up in single file* should be corrected by leaving out *in single file*,—*already* should have but one l,—and the dash after *dismounted* should be changed to a comma.

"In the next sentence, the writer does not mean *excepting* but *accepting*; and, in stead of the adverb *roughly* modifying the verb *looked*, we should have the adjective *rough* to qualify the subject *they*.

"The common error of *lay* for *lie* next appears. Then *I will* should be changed to *I shall*, as simple futurity, and not determination, is implied. A semicolon after *with them* is required, to separate the two main divisions of the sentence. The parts of the compound adjective *copper-colored* should be connected with the hyphen, and *travellers*, denoting possession, should have the apostrophe after *s*.

"In the last paragraph, the first verb *are* must be changed to the singular form *is*, as its subject *air* is singular. The last sentence lacks unity, as it contains things that have no connection; two new sentences should be made, commencing respectively with *Game* and *I hope*."

Criticise orally, in like manner, the following Composition on

FOPS.

Fops are young, gay, trifling, men, that try to gain the eye of the ladies by showy dress ; they are sometimes called coxcombs, and sometimes dandies.

Fops often carry a Cain, and apply an eye glass to one eye, and stare at people they meet (particularly ladies') in a audacious kind of a manner. They talk affected, drawing out their words. They are often quite feminine. I recollect of once reading of an old roman fop, who he was so attached to finery and so languid that he kept two sets of finger rings—a heavier set for to wear in winter—and a lighter set for summer when the heat made his winter rings oppressive and unendurable.

Most people despise fops ; I do.



LESSON LXXXVII.

Letters of Recommendation are often given by teachers to deserving scholars, by employers to persons who have been in their service, etc. It is important, in such letters, not to mislead others by saying more in favor of the person recommended than the truth will warrant. The following will serve as a specimen ; copy and punctuate.

Lowell Mass April 25 '76

The bearer Mr. J. F. Hawes has been in our employ for the last five years and we are happy to bear witness to his good character fidelity intelligence and obliging disposition He is an expert accountant and possesses qualifications which will make him useful in any position of trust He leaves us to seek a home in the West and we cordially recommend him to any one needing the services of a trustworthy assistant

H ORDWAY & Co

A letter answering an advertisement for a clerk, or applying for a situation, is frequently required ; it should be brief and modest. Specimens of such an advertisement and answer follow ; copy and punctuate.

WANTED immediately an experienced salesman of good address who can refer to his last employer Apply by letter in handwriting of applicant to Hoyt & Pendleton 34 Front St

June 2 1876

Messrs HOYT & PENDLETON

34 Front St

Gentlemen

In answer to your advertisement of this date I beg leave to apply for the position in question I was four years with Messrs Henry Dillon & Co and was thrown out of employment by their recent failure As to my qualifications I refer you to either member of that firm

Yours respectfully

THOS SMITH jr

Advertisements.—Every one, whether in business or not, has occasion sometimes to draw up an advertisement. Here brevity is particularly essential. Copy and punctuate the following specimens:—

TO LET Farm-house in Litchfield Co Conn three miles from Harlem R R depot Ten rooms piazza garden planted shade and fruit stables six months \$200 year \$325 Apply to H Drummer 47 W 39th St

GOVERNESS A young lady graduate of Sigourney Inst desires a situation as governess can teach French German and the rudiments of music has had experience and is fond of children Address F H Intelligencer Office

News Items, or condensed accounts of entertainments, accidents, etc., such as are found in the daily papers, furnish subjects for easy and improving exercises in composition. Copy and punctuate the following:—

SCHOOL-RECEPTION.—The pupils of Temple St School gave a brilliant reception to their friends yesterday afternoon A large audience testified their appreciation of the exercises which were extremely creditable to the scholars and showed careful training in elocution The dialogue on "The Seasons" was worthy of special commendation The short holiday usual at this season was announced at the expiration of which on the 2d prox the school will reopen We are glad to learn that Miss Stark will continue to preside over the Musical Department

Write a letter of recommendation, from a teacher for a pupil who has graduated with the first honors; from the head of a school, for an assistant teacher; from an employer, for a clerk; from a lady, for her cook.

Write a letter applying for a situation as entry-clerk; as book-keeper; as principal of a District School.

Write an advertisement of goods for sale; of an article found; of a watch lost; a house to let; a commercial college; the reopening of a school; a summer hotel; a religious meeting; a furnished house wanted; a boarding-house wanted; a coachman and gardener wanted; a lecture.

Write news-items as follows:—Destructive Fire. Old Folks' Concert. Accident on the River. Distinguished Arrival. Terrible Thunder-storm. Collision on the Red River R. R. Opening of the Academy. Marriage in High Life. The Late Freshet. Great Mass Meeting.



LESSON LXXXVIII.

The engravings interspersed through the previous pages have been made the bases of Compositions. Material objects, also, may be used as the subjects of improving exercises that will cultivate the power of observation while they furnish ideas,—the want of which is often a bugbear to the young when required to compose.

The teacher, for instance, having called to the black-board a scholar whom we shall call *A*, shows a piece of sponge to the class, and asks what it is. They all answer, and *A* writes the word *SPONGE* on the board as a title.

The teacher proceeds: Let us describe this sponge—dry, as you now see it. What is its color? Its weight—light or heavy? Its structure? Its shape? Has it any taste or smell? These questions are successively answered; and *A* writes as his first head, *Description (when dry)*. *Color, weight, structure, shape, taste, smell.*

The teacher next places the sponge in a saucer of water, and when it has absorbed the water asks what changes are exhibited in color and weight,

and what property the sponge possesses in a remarkable degree. He asks whether the scholars have ever noticed this property of absorbing liquids in any thing else besides sponge. One remembers having seen a towel made quite wet by having one corner left in a basin. Another thinks of a wick drawing up oil, and feeding the flame of a lighted lamp. *A* makes his second head, *Property of absorbing water. How changed in color and weight, when wet.*

"What is sponge?" is the next question. Some of the scholars think it a vegetable production. The teacher tells them that it belongs to the animal kingdom; that unorganized animal material covers the outside, and lines the little pores, of the sponge, when it is found living in the ocean fastened to rocks or shells. *A* takes for his third head, *What it is.*

It is next asked where and how sponge is obtained. The scholars do not know. The teacher tells them, in the warmer parts of the ocean. The sponges we see, come mostly from the Bahama Islands and the Mediterranean. They are obtained by divers, who go down and detach them from their rocky beds. *A* puts down his fourth head, *Where and how obtained.*

Next the teacher asks what sponges are used for. Various answers are received,—for cleaning slates, washing carriages, sponging clothes, drying out boats. One says the doctor uses a sponge in dressing wounds; another has seen a wet sponge on a bank-counter, and the teller moistening his thumb and finger by touching it when he is counting bills. Fifth head, *Uses.*

Finally, it is asked whether any one has ever heard the word *sponge* applied in any other way. One scholar remembers hearing his father say that Mr. Higgins was all the time *sponging* on him. Another answers that a man who lives on his neighbors is sometimes called a *sponge*. The teacher then draws out by questions the resemblance between a sponge and a man so called, and tells the class that this is a *figurative use* of the word. *A* makes this his last head; he has now written as follows:—

SPONGE.

1. Description (when dry).
Color, weight, structure, shape, taste, smell.
2. Property of absorbing water.
How changed in color and weight, when wet.
3. What it is.
4. Where and how obtained.
5. Uses.
6. Figurative use of the word.

The heads thus written out constitute what is called an **Analysis** of the subject.

Now, from the Analysis just prepared let each member of the class, in the presence of the teacher, write on slate or paper a Composition on SPONGE, the time for the exercise being limited, with the view of inducing rapid thought and fluency of expression. Finally, let the Compositions be exchanged, and criticised orally by the scholars themselves, as on page 162.

By similar object-lessons develop the following subjects, encouraging prompt and full answers to the questions. Let an Analysis be drawn up in each case, Compositions be prepared from it, and orally criticised :—

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| 1. India-rubber. | 6. Slate. | 11. A book. |
| 2. Silver. | 7. Milk. | 12. A ball. |
| 3. Marble. | 8. Paper. | 13. An apple. |
| 4. Iron. | 9. A pen. | 14. A broom. |
| 5. Leather. | 10. A watch. | 15. A feather. |



LESSON LXXXIX.

Any subject of composition, even an abstract one, may with profit be discussed in advance by the teacher and the class. A scholar, as before, is called to the black-board; as different topics connected with the subject are presented in turn, he makes a note of them, and at the end arranges them properly for a formal Analysis.

This exercise will be found interesting and of great aid in helping the young to the ready use of language. Let errors and even inelegancies of expression be carefully watched for and criticised.

For example, let RAIN be the subject. *A* thinks it proper to tell first what rain is. *B* or, in case of his not knowing, *C* goes on to tell as best he can that it is water taken up by the air in the form of vapor from the ocean, lakes, rivers, etc., and returned to the earth in drops. That this vapor, at first invisible, afterward appears in the form of clouds; and that, when the clouds become incapable of holding the moisture with which they are charged, the particles of vapor unite in drops, which, being heavier than the air, fall to the earth.

D says that rain-water is very pure and not salt. Hereupon *E* asks why, if it comes from the ocean, it is not salt like ocean-water. *F* can not explain the reason; but another scholar says it is because only the water of the ocean is evaporated—the salt is left behind.

G calls attention to the fact that the quantity of rain differs very much in different places. He has read in his Geography that in parts of Peru, Arabia, Egypt, Sahara, and elsewhere, it never rains, while on the coast of Guiana and Brazil the rain is almost incessant.

H has heard of countries that have their rain all at one time of the year,—the rainy season being their winter, the dry season their summer.

I thinks it is time to speak of the good effects of rain. It makes the earth fruitful; without it there would be no crops, no animal life. This is shown by the barrenness of deserts, where rain seldom or never falls, and by the consequences of a long drought in other countries.

J considers rain useful, because it feeds the rivers and keeps them in good order for navigation. *K* looks upon it as of great benefit to cities in washing the streets clean and laying the dust.

L acknowledges the usefulness of rain, but says it is also sometimes attended with bad effects. He points to freshets, and the damage they do; also to the injury done to cotton and other crops by excessive or unseasonable rains.

M speaks of the effect of rainy days on the spirits. *N* says this leads him to think of the best way of spending rainy days, and tells how he manages to get through them.

O gives a description of a summer shower—the black clouds—the wind—the big drops—the rain descending in sheets—the sudden cessation—the re-appearance of the sun—the rainbow—the effect on the air, on vegetation.

P thinks the subject has been exhausted. The teacher asks whether he does not remember some particular rains spoken of in history. He answers, yes; that in 1781, during the campaign in the Carolinas, the army of Morgan and Greene was twice saved from the British by heavy rains which swelled the Catawba and the Yadkin after the Americans had crossed,

so that the enemy could not make the passage for many hours, and that thus the Continental troops were enabled to reach a place of safety.

Q thinks the greatest rain recorded in history should not be overlooked—the rain of forty days and nights that produced the Deluge—and draws upon his imagination to picture some of the scenes connected with that event.

No further responses being made to the teacher's call for additional points, the discussion ends, and the following Analysis appears on the board as the result:—

RAIN.

1. What it is.
2. Where it comes from.
3. Why it is not salt.
4. Rainfall in different places.
5. Good effects of rain.
6. Bad effects of rain.
7. How to spend rainy days.
8. Description of a shower.
9. Historical rains.

Prepare Compositions from the above Analysis; revise them carefully with the view of correcting your own errors. Exchange, and criticise orally.

The oral discussion of any subject in a familiar style, somewhat like the above, will be attended with the great advantage of evolving thought. It is the want of having something to say, rather than not knowing how to say it, that in most cases constitutes the difficulty of composing. Subjects with which the class are well acquainted, will, of course, be the easiest to discuss and write on. For example:—

Trees.	Flowers.	Gardens.	The dog.
Snow.	Mountains.	Travelling.	Water.
Rivers.	The horse.	The ocean.	Gold.
Steam.	A market.	The moon.	Ice.
Birds.	The whale.	The camel.	Cities.

LESSON XC.

As a further exercise for securing correctness and fluency in speaking, let one of the class take up an engraving and without previous preparation describe orally what he sees in it, while the rest watch for mistakes in his language. Whoever thinks he observes an error, rises and offers his correction. If the teacher decides that he is right, he proceeds with the description till some one finds him in fault. The picture, having been thus orally discussed, is then made the subject of written compositions.

The engraving on the opposite page, for instance, might be treated as follows:—

A, being first called on, says: "The scene represented I should suppose to be near some manufacturing village in New England. The time is July or August, as the grain is ripe; and the hour is not far from noon, for the shadows cast are short, and a girl is apparently carrying their dinner to two men who are working very diligent."

Here *B* interposes an objection, that the adverb *diligently*, and not the adjective *diligent*, is needed to modify the verb *are working*. The teacher finds his point well taken, and *B* proceeds: "In the foreground two men are engaged in cradling grain—whether wheat or rye I can not tell. They lay it evenly in swaths. Near by a dog is setting, watching the approaching figure."

Several rise. *C*, being the first on his feet, is asked for his criticism, and says that *B* used *setting* for *sitting*. He is told to go on, and says, "A girl has just entered into the field." *D* hereupon suggests that *into* is wrong, as the object really belongs to the verb *enters*. "Right," says the teacher; "go on."

"It seems to be a colored girl," says *D*. "She has a basket on one arm, and a pail in her hand. Behind her is the tow-path of the canal. On it is a man with two horses." Here *E*, rising, claims that *is*, as just used, was wrong, for that two subjects, taken together, require the plural form *are*. *D* replies that there is but one subject, *man*—*horses* being the object of the preposition *with*—and that *is*, therefore, is right. The teacher

decides in *D*'s favor, and he proceeds. "The two horses," says he, "are like many that I have seen on canals, old and lean—particularly the hindmost one." *F* rises and makes the point that, as he is speaking of but two, he should use the comparative *hinder* in stead of *hindmost*. *F*'s criticism is admitted as sound, and so the description of the picture proceeds till every part has been touched upon.



RURAL INDUSTRIAL SCENE.

The engraving suggests the following subjects for compositions.

Agriculture.—Its importance, as supplying what? Its antiquity—when and where first practised? The farmer's life—in spring—in summer—in autumn—in winter. Agricultural operations—ploughing, planting, mowing, cutting grain (describe the cradle, as shown in the engraving—why it is used). Advantages and disadvantages of the farmer's life.

Manufactures.—Meaning; mention some manufactured articles made here—mention some imported. Factories; describe their external appearance (the one in the picture, for instance); generally situated how, and why? What may take the place of water, as a

motive power? Describe the interior of a factory; the operatives. Where in this country is the most manufacturing done? Effect of hard times on manufacturing industry; on the operatives. Would you prefer the life of a farmer or a manufacturer, and why?

Canals.—Describe (referring to the engraving) the canal itself, the tow-path, the horses, the driver, the boat, the bridges; locks. To what kind of country best adapted? Used for what? Compare with railroads, for travelling; for transportation. Name any celebrated canals. Canals in cold countries in winter.

Railroads.—How built; generally follow what, and why? Originated how and where? Describe locomotive and train in motion. Fast trains; palace-cars; depots; scene when a train arrives. Advantages; save time for travellers; promote commerce; open up new regions. Accidents. The Pacific Railroad.

A Village.—Describe a village—the main street, the houses, stores, gardens, school-house, church, hotel. Generally situated on what, and why? Life in a village, compared with a city or a country life.

Take as subjects of oral description like the above, the engravings on pages 6, 17, 49, 61, 108, and 160, of this book. Engravings in Geographies or Readers may be treated in the same way.

Explaining and applying current proverbs, first orally and then in writing, is a good exercise. Thus:—

“Strike while the iron is hot.”

This proverb is evidently drawn from the experience of the blacksmith. When he wants to shape a piece of iron, he puts it in his fire and makes it red-hot; then with a few quick blows of his hammer he can forge it into a bolt, a horseshoe, or whatever he desires. But if he is dilatory and lets the iron cool after taking it out of the fire, all his blows are vain; he has lost the opportunity.

There is another proverb of like significance, which may be supposed to have first come from some farmer—“Make hay while the sun shines.” When a good hay-day comes, the thrifty farmer always improves it; he

will not take the chance of to-morrow's being wet. A few rainy days may damage his crop ; so, while the weather is good, he gets his hay in.

These proverbs teach that we must improve our opportunities, must be up and doing while circumstances are favorable. We must not put things off, as so many are tempted to do, to their great injury. Shakespeare says,

"There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune ;"

but if we do not take it at the flood, it will soon ebb, and we shall find to our sorrow that we are too late. The man who has a good business, and neglects it till it gradually leaves him, does not make hay while the sun shines. The boy who has the opportunity of receiving a good education, and fails to improve it, does not strike while the iron is hot,—and for him it never gets hot again.

In like manner, enlarge on the following proverbs :—

Shoemaker, stick to your last.
A new broom sweeps clean.
A burnt child dreads the fire.
Money makes the mare go.
Look before you leap.
A rolling stone gathers no moss.
It's a long lane that has no turning.
One swallow does not make a summer.
It never rains but it pours.
Cut your coat according to your cloth.
Once caught, twice shy.
A stitch in time saves nine.
Birds of a feather flock together.
All is not gold that glitters.
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
A nod is as good as a wink to a blind horse.

From the following points write stories in your own language, giving them appropriate titles :—

I.

A young man in want of employment went to Paris—had letters to a large banking-house—called and presented them. Head of

house looked over them—told him no vacancy. Much disappointed. As he stepped out, observed a pin on the sidewalk, picked it up, stuck it in lapel of coat. The banker to whom he had just applied happened to be at window—thought he must be a very careful young man, to notice and pick up a pin in the midst of his disappointment—called him back—made a place for him. Young man very attentive to business—rose step by step—became partner in the house and finally its head—an eminent banker, and one of the conspicuous public men of the age. What lesson does this story teach?

II.

A miller and his son were driving their donkey before them to a fair, to sell him. Troop of girls by the way-side ridiculed them for trudging along afoot when they might ride; so the miller told his son to mount. Soon came to some old men. The old men rebuked the lad for riding while his father walked; so the miller got up in his son's place. Next met women and children—they reviled old man for riding, while the poor boy was tired to death and could hardly keep up; so the miller took up his son behind him.

Near the town a man cried out against them for overloading the donkey, and said they were better able to carry him than he them. Miller, wishing to please him, tied donkey's legs—got a pole—son at one end, he at other—tried to carry donkey across a bridge into the town. Crowds ran up to see so strange a sight—laughed, shouted, clapped their hands. Donkey frightened—kicked—broke the cords—tumbled off the pole—fell into river—drowned. Old man, vexed and ashamed, made the best of his way home—having been taught what important lesson?

The above story may be expanded by introducing various circumstances in connection with the narrative, and giving the words used by the different parties in stead of the substance of what they said.

For further practice in narration, read a brief story to the scholars, and require them to tell or write it in their language.

TABLE OF COMMON ABBREVIATIONS.



A. B., Bachelor of Arts.
 A. C., *ante Christum*, before Christ.
 Acct., *acc*, account.
 A. D., *anno Domini*, in the year of our Lord.
 Agt., Agent.
 A. M., Master of Arts.
 A. M., *ante meridiem*, morning.
 Anon., anonymous.
 B. C., before Christ.
 Bro., Brother.
 Bt., bought.
 Capt., Captain.
 Cf., *confer*, compare.
 Chap., ch., chapter.
 Co., County, Company.
 C. O. D., collect on delivery.
 Col., Colonel.
 Coll., College.
 Com., Commodore; Committee.
 Cor. Sec., Corresponding Secretary.
 Cr., Creditor.
 D. D., Doctor of Divinity.
 Dea., Deacon.
 Deft., Defendant.
 Dep., Deputy; Department.
 Do., ditto, the same.
 Doz., dozen.
 Dr., Doctor, Debtor.
 D. V., *deo volente*, God willing.
 Ed., Editor.
 E. E., errors excepted.
 E. g., *exempli gratia*, for example.
 Esq., Esquire.
 Etc., *et cetera*, and so forth.
 Gen., General.
 H. M., his or her Majesty.
 Hon., Honorable.
 I., island. Is., islands.
 Ibid., ib., *ibidem*, in the same place.
 Id., *idem*, the same.
 I. e., *id est*, that is.
 I. H. S., *Jesus hominum salvator*, Jesus Saviour of men.
 I.N.B.I., *Jesus Nazareus Rex Judæorum*, Jesus of Nazareth king of the Jews.
 Inst., instant, of this month.
 J. P., Justice of the Peace.

Jun., jr., junior.
 Lib., l., *liber*, book.
 LL. D., *Legum Doctor*, Doctor of Laws.
 L. S., *Locus Sigilli*, Place of the Seal.
 M., *meridia*, noon.
 M. C., Member of Congress.
 M. D., Doctor of Medicine.
 Mem., memorandum.
 Messrs., *messeurs*, gentlemen.
 M. P., Member of Police.
 Mr., Mister.
 Mrs., Mistress.
 MS., manuscript. MSS., manuscripts.
 N. B., *nota bene*, mark well.
 No., *numero*, number.
 O. S., old style.
 Ph. D., Doctor of Philosophy.
 Plff., Plaintiff.
 P. M., Postmaster.
 P. M., *post meridiem*, evening.
 P. O., Post-office.
 Pr., *per*, by.
 Pres., President.
 Prin., Principal.
 Prof., Professor.
 Pro tem., *pro tempore*, for the time.
 Prox., *proximo*, of next month.
 P. S., Postscript.
 Qy., Query.
 Rec. Sec., Recording Secretary.
 Rev., Reverend.
 R. R., Railroad.
 Sec., Secretary.
 Sen., Senior; Senator.
 S. S., Sunday-School.
 St., Saint; street.
 S. T. D., *Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor*, Doctor of Divinity.
 Treas., Treasurer.
 Ult., *ultimo*, of last month.
 Univ., University.
 U. S. A., United States of America.
 U. S. A., United States Army.
 U. S. N., United States Navy.
 Vid., v., *vide*, see.
 Viz., *videlicet*, namely.
 Vol., volume. Vols., volumes.
 Vs., *versus*, against.

TABLE OF COMMON EXPRESSIONS

FROM THE LATIN AND FRENCH, WITH THEIR MEANING.

[Those from the French are in Italics.]



Ad infinitum, to infinity.
 Ad libitum, at pleasure.
À la —, after the—manner.
À la mode, in the fashion.
 Alma mater, fostering mother.
Amende honorable, apology.
À propos, to the point.
Au fait, skilful, expert.
Au revoir, farewell till next we meet.
Bagatelle, trifle.
Beau-monde, the world of fashion.
Billet-doux, love-letter.
 Casus belli, ground for war.
Chef-d'œuvre, masterpiece.
Ci-devant, former, formerly.
Comme il faut, in good style.
Coup de soleil, sunstroke.
Coup d'état, stroke of policy.
 De facto, in fact, actual, really.
 De jure, by right, rightful, justly.
 De novo, anew, afresh.
Dernier ressort, last resort.
En attendant, meanwhile.
En masse, in a body.
En passant, in passing.
En règle, according to rule.
En route, on the way.
Entre nous, between ourselves.
Espit de corps, spirit animating persons
 of one vocation; class-spirit.
 Ex officio, by virtue of his office.
 Ex parte, on one side.
 Ex post facto, after the thing is done.
Fait accompli, thing done.
Faux pas, false step, blunder.
Hors de combat, disabled.
 Ignobile vulgus, the ignoble crowd.
 In extremis, at the point of death.
 In memoriam, to the memory.
 In propria persona, in person.
 In statu quo, in the same state.
 In toto, wholly, entirely.
 Ipse dixit, he himself said it; an arbitrary
 assertion.

Ipsa facto, by the very act.
Jeu de mots, play upon words, pun.
 Lapsus linguæ, slip of the tongue.
 Lusus naturæ, freak of nature.
Mal à propos, inappropriate, ill-timed.
Mise en scène, getting up (of a play).
 Modus operandi, mode of operation.
 Multum in parvo, much in little.
Née —, whose maiden name was —.
 Ne plus ultra, nothing beyond, farthest
 point.
N'importe, no matter.
 Nolens volens, willingly or unwillingly.
Nom de plume, name under which one
 writes, pseudonym.
 Non compos, of unsound mind.
 Non sequitur, illogical conclusion.
Nous verrons, we shall see.
On dit, it is said.
 Otium cum dignitate, dignified leisure.
Par excellence, pre-eminently.
 Particeps criminis, an accomplice.
Passé, past its prime, worn-out.
 Per annum, a year; per diem, a day.
 Per se, of itself.
 Post mortem, after death.
 Prima facie, at first sight.
 Pro rata, proportionate, proportionately.
 Quantum sufficit, sufficient.
 Quid pro quo, an equivalent.
Qui vive (on the), on the lookout.
Recherché, choice.
 Secundum artem, according to rule.
 Sine die, without naming a future day.
 Sine qua non, indispensable condition.
 Sub rosa, privately.
 Sui generis, of its own kind; unique.
 Terra firma, the solid earth.
Tête-à-tête, face to face, familiar inter
 view.
Tout ensemble, the whole.
 Vice versa, the terms being exchanged.
Via-à-vis, opposite, person opposite.
 Viva voce, by voice.

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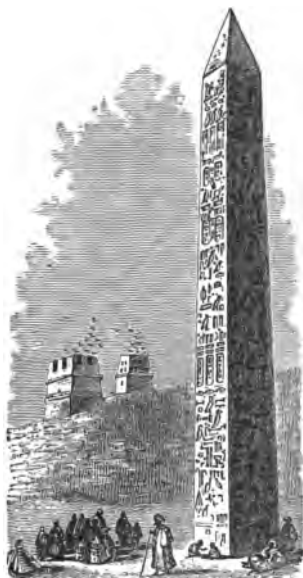
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